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# CHRONOLOGICAL HISTORY

OF THE

## UNITED STATES.

ARRANGED

With Plates on Bem's Principle.

BY

*alms*  
ELIZABETH P. PEABODY.

NEW YORK :

SHELDON, BLAKEMAN & COMPANY,

115 NASSAU STREET.

1856.

*Deposited in Clerk's Office of  
Dist. New York June 20. 1856*

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E. O. JENKINS,

Printer and Stereotyper,

No. 26 FRANKFORT STREET.

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# HISTORY

OF THE

# UNITED STATES.

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## TO THE TEACHER.

THE events that make up the history of the United States have their causal roots in all the ages of time previous to its commencement. This history is the flower of the ages that have gone before. Hence it is impossible to give it adequately as a fragment, and to those who do not know previous history. The nature of its events also makes it a difficult acquirement for children, undisciplined in the art of inferring causes; and the events themselves have little of the picturesque for the imagination of youth, though rich in interest for the matured mind.

But it is this fragment of the great narrative of time, for which alone there has been made any provision by law, in much of the common school teaching of the United States; and therefore a section of Bem's Chart of Universal History has been modified to meet the case. A chronological outline of the chain of events may certainly be impressed on the mind, by means of that natural memorizer, *the sense of sight, addressed by these colored symbols*, before historical causes can be appreciated; and chronology is the relation of paramount importance in history, because, including synchronism, it holds in its arms, as it were, all other relations. In the accompanying maps of the last four centuries of time, nothing is represented in colors but what pertains to that territory which now bears the name of the United States. But in the empty

squares, the student who pleases, can indicate with a pen synchronistic European events, which will inevitably suggest how much the contemporary events need to be known, in order to see all the bearings of American history. To study the American history, with these colored symbols, will lead directly therefore to the study of Universal history, with the same valuable help; and thus the charts of the Universal History, on the same plan, with the explanatory manual, will be demanded by the mind of the student.

The teacher will observe to the student, that though our colored representations begin with the sixteenth century, when most of the explorations of the United States coast were made, as well as the only permanent settlement at St. Augustine, Florida, yet that it was in the last decade of the fifteenth century, that the New World was discovered by Columbus; and that as early as 1497, the Cabots began their voyages in the service of the English. It would be well also, to add a little introductory discourse, somewhat like the following, which, if the teacher has not time to communicate orally, can be put into the pupils' hands to be read and even studied. A great deal is gained, with respect to any study, if the student clearly understands beforehand, the general scope of the science upon which he is going to enter, and its relations to his general culture.

#### TO STUDENTS IN HISTORY,

HOWEVER YOUNG THEY MAY BE.

You are about to study a series of events which are now going on—a part of which you are—and whose future you are to help bring about. For the first time in the *recorded* history of mankind, there is a nation whose government directly depends upon the mass of the people, every individ-

ual of whom becomes a creator of its events, in precise ratio with his personal energy; and even those who have no energy cannot avoid having an influence, by hanging as a dead weight upon the wheels of Progress.

There is nothing therefore which can be studied, of more immediate and practical value to Americans, than history; showing, as it does, the origin and consequences of national action, and instructing every one what to do and what to leave undone, in his own inevitable action, as citizen, legislator, executive officer, or voter, one of which every American must necessarily be. Because God wills that no good should come to human society, except through the action of men and women, whom He is always ready to inspire with love and wisdom, He gives to every one, besides reason and affection, the memory of past experience in history; and to Americans, at least, the opportunity of making new experiments in the light of truth.

But in vain has He given the past and the future to us unless we are awake to accept and appreciate His gifts. The old world is covered with bad institutions which men have created, very often with positively good intentions, but on false notions, or, at least, without large and profound ideas. These institutions have done infinite mischiefs, and are perpetuated and reproduced by the activity of the wicked and the passivity of the good. Whether the new world shall estimate and sift out these evils, or repeat these mistakes, depends on young Americans, who are now sitting in school-rooms all over the country, unconscious of their powers and consequent responsibilities. Shall they not be awakened to this consciousness, and begin to form their principles on eternal laws of justice and love, while they are yet unsolicited by party interests?

Republicanism is the government which is instituted for the

welfare of the mass of a people, rather than for the advantage of a few ambitious rulers. Its characteristic is, that the sovereignty rests in the electing many, and that the officers of government are responsible to the electors.

The first republic was the Hebrew, whose recorded history stretches over two thousand years, from Abraham to Nehemiah; and what is remarkable, it is the only contemporary history which has survived of those times; though the little free nation was surrounded by vast and rich empires, in which the arts and sciences and political power were on a magnificent scale. Who but the free may develop the historical genius, or have any use for history? Herodotus was contemporary with Nehemiah, and began two hundred years of first rate contemporary history of the Republics of Greece. As these declined, Rome arose, and spread through the world an Empire, which still retained the form of Republicanism, after it lost the spirit; so that *Emperor* is now a more expressive name for Despot, than even *King*. But when the form at last broke to pieces, in the fifth century after Christ, there arose Slavonian Republics, that lived some centuries to represent the principle, but which sank in the 8th century, by means chiefly of the ecclesiastical principle, into despotic monarchies; though Poland never quite lost the republican spirit, but blazed out with its Copernicus and others, into very beautiful civilization, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In the ninth century, the Icelandic Republic grew up, and saved the light of civilization for a season; and in the eleventh century the Italian and Flemish Republics were developed, and flourished five hundred years. The league of Cambray, to destroy Venice, gave the death blow to Italian Republicanism, and initiated the modern diplomacy. All the northern invaders of Rome had republican principles and elected kings, at the time they came upon Rome; and hence



resulted the European constitutional monarchies. But all these governments, as well as the Republics proper, fell, in the 16th century, into or under absolutism; except that the Helvetic Republics maintained themselves against the House of Austria from the 14th century, and the United Provinces of Holland from the 16th century. Republicanism was also developed in England for a season, in the 17th century; but generally speaking, it may be said to have emigrated to America, from England, Holland, France and Germany. We must omit for the present all the old history of Republicanism and speak of it only as it has appeared in our own country, in the 18th and 19th centuries. Now we will explain the symbolization of the Chronology of the events we are to study, made by

#### THE PAINTED CENTURIES.

Look at the plate of the 16th century. You observe a large square, divided into a hundred smaller squares. These smaller squares represent the years. The year-squares are subdivided into nine parts, and these subdivisions classify the events that are represented in the year-squares.

Now, begin at the upper left hand, and count the horizontal row of year-squares, from left to right; 1501, 1502, 1503, 1504, 1505, 1506, 1507, 1508, 1509, 1510. This is the first decade of the century. Every row is ten years or a decade; the second is read 1511, 1512, 1513, 1514, 1515, 1516, &c. When you have counted five decades (to 1550) you will observe a broader line divides the first half from the rest of the century; and you will observe that a vertical line of the same breadth divides every decade into two parts. These broad lines are landmarks for the eye, helping it to see quickly what year it is; for the eye can appreciate the division into

five parts as easily as into two. (This help to the eye becomes quite important, when using Bem's Charts of Universal History; where 2500 years are represented to the eye at once. But the centuries are easily appreciated, because they are arranged into a block, five square; and these broad division lines, in the centuries themselves, make it possible for even a little child, after a little exercise, to name the year at which the teacher points.) The events are represented in colors; a brick-red for Spain; blue for France; purple for England; bluish-green for Sweden; yellowish-green for Holland; and the orange color represents Americans, whether aboriginals, or citizens of the United States. The nine subdivisions classify events thus:

|                                        |                                           |                                         |
|----------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|
| Battles, Sieges,<br>Beginnings of War. | Conquests,<br>Annexations, Unions.        | Losses and<br>Disasters.                |
| Falls of States.                       | Foundations of<br>States and Revolutions. | Treaties and<br>Sundries.               |
| Births,                                | Deeds,                                    | Deaths, of remark-<br>able individuals. |

When colors slant to each other, the nations concur in events. When several disconnected events are represented in one square, they are painted in parallelograms. Epochal events fill the whole square to the neglect of the subdivisions.

You will become acquainted with this symbolization, by learning how each event is represented; and as you learn all about the events, in the chapters that describe their relation in the narrative, you will find that the picture becomes fixed in your memory. It is easier to remember the relative locality of the representation, than to remember the figures of the dates; while, if you understand the plan, any locality can be turned into the figures, by a moment's thought, whenever you need them. *All* dates are not represented; but if you have the

dates here represented perfectly by heart, events are so connected in the narrative of history, that you can easily place any one, by the exercise of your imaginative memory, in its locality, and see its general chronological relation. So all places are not put upon geographical maps, but if you know a neighboring place to any particular place, you can see with your mind's eye, its relative position. The best Chronological Chart, is, like the best school map, not one where every item is represented; but where enough is represented to suggest where everything else should come.

Now learn the answers to the following questions, which will make your own the explanations that have been given :

### LESSON I.\*

WHY is history especially important in the education of Americans? (See Address to the Student). Did the bad institutions of the Old World arise out of man's malignity, or how? On whom depends it, whether the New World shall re-organise the bad institutions of the Old World? What great opportunity does the New World afford to man? What is a Republican Government? What was the first Republic of which we have recorded history? Is there any contemporary history of the great Despotisms during those 2000 years? What history of Republicanism succeeds the Hebrew for 200 years? What Republic grew, as Greece declined? Did this preserve the spirit of Republicanism? When did the *form* break in pieces? What Republics succeeded? How long was it before they sank into despotic monarchies? Did Poland wholly lose its republican spirit? When did the Icelandic Republic grow up? When did the Flemish and Italian Re-

\* This Lesson can be omitted at the discretion of the teacher.

publics begin their 500 years of prosperity? What event, by ruining Venice, gave the death-blow to Italian freedom? What was the origin of the constitutional monarchies of Europe? When did these, and the Republics proper, fall into or under absolutism? Where and how did Republicanism manifest itself in Europe in the 17th century? Where in the 18th century?

If the teacher happens to have the Charts of Universal History, he can point out with his stick, the range of the Republics through the centuries. He should also ask the students the following questions upon the painted centuries:

## LESSON II.

How is a century represented? Why is it divided into a hundred parts? How many rows of squares are there? above the broad line? below? How many years are represented in a row? What is a decade? What is the use of the broad horizontal line under the fifth row? What year is the 5th square on the 5th row? What year, the 5th on the 6th row? In which row is 62? Do the numbers on each column all end with the same figure? With what figure do the numbers on the eighth column end? What is the use of the broad vertical line? On which side of it is 35? 75? 95? On which side is 47? 77? 87? What nation does orange represent? blue? purple? How is Spain represented? Sweden? the Dutch? Why is the whole year-square sometimes painted, to the neglect of the subdivison? Why do the colors sometimes slant? When do you paint in parallelograms? What is represented in the 8th subdivision? the 7th? the 9th? What in the 1st? 2nd? 3rd? What in the 5th? What in the 4th? the 6th? Which year is the century named from?



## CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

## PLATE I.

1501. Henry VII. grants patent for colonizing America. *To represent this event, the 6th subdivision of the square on the upper left hand is painted purple, which is the color for England.*
1512. Ponce de Leon discovers Florida. *Eighth subdivision of the twelfth square is brick red for Spain.*
1517. Sebastian Cabot's last voyage in the English service *Eighth subdivision, purple.*
1520. Vasquez de Ayllon's Piracy on Chicora. *Eighth, brick red.*
1523. Verrazzani explores American coasts for France. *Eighth subdivision, blue, for France.*
1525. Stephen Gomez tries to discover North West Passage to India for Spain. *Eighth subdivision, brick red.*
1526. Pamphilo de Narvaez attempts to conquer Florida. *Eighth, brick red.*
1534. James Cartier discovers River St. Lawrence. *Eighth, blue.*
1537. Ferdinand de Soto attempts to conquer Florida. *Eighth, brick red.*
1540. Roberval and Cartier try in vain to colonize Canada. *Eighth, blue.*
1542. Ferdinand de Soto dies on the Mississippi. *Ninth, brick red.*

1562. Coligny sends a Huguenot Colony to America. *Eighth, blue.*
1565. ST. AUGUSTINE, founded by the Spanish Melendez, who conquers the French colony. *First and upper half of second, brick red, to represent the conquering Spaniards; also, fifth, to represent the foundation of St. Augustine; and eighth, the deed of Melendez, a remarkable person. Blue in the lower half of the second, and in the third, to represent French loss.*
1576. Martin Frobisher renews English Explorations. *Eighth, purple.*
1578. Sir Humphrey Gilbert's Voyage and Death. *Eighth, purple.*
1579. Sir Francis Drake discovers Oregon, and names it New Albion. *Eighth, purple.*
1584. Sir Walter Raleigh gets patent to colonize. *Eighth, purple.*
1585. Sir W. R.'s unsuccessful colony at Roanoke, carried out by Sir Richard Grenville. *Eighth, purple.*

Let the scholar take the Plate, and in answer to questions, describe how everything is represented and why, thus: Henry VII.'s granting the patent is represented by purple in the 6th subdivision of the year-square for 1501, because purple is the color for England, and the sixth subdivision is the one for events classed as sundries. The adventurers are represented in the 8th subdivision of their respective years, because that is the subdivision for deeds of remarkable persons; the purple, blue and brickred, discriminate the nations. Ferdinand de Soto's death is in the 9th subdivision because it is a death. To have attention called to these things will impress the localities of the dates in the plate.

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## HISTORICAL ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE TABLE,

## AND PLATE I.

A VERY brilliant account of all the events represented in this table of the sixteenth century, can be found in the first three chapters of Mr. Bancroft's History of the United States. Theodore Irving's History of the Conquest of Florida, Gayarre's Lectures on the Romance of the History of Louisiana, and Hakluyt's Voyages, are also charming books for those to read, who have leisure to go into the minute things of history. But for the convenience of young students, who cannot have the use of such books in school, we will give here a little account, enabling them to answer some questions respecting each event.

## SPANISH ADVENTURERS.

1520. Ponce de Leon was one of those Spaniards, whose life and adventures are told in Washington Irving's "Voyages of the Companions of Columbus." When he discovered Florida, he was cruising about the West India Islands, in search of a fountain, which, it was said, would bestow immortal youth. In those days such things could be believed; as you will easily understand, when by studying Universal History, you learn the condition of human minds in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. On one Easter Sunday (called by the Spaniards Pascua Florida), Ponce de Leon saw land, which he named Florida, either from the day, or because it was covered with flowering trees. Landing, he explored the shores round about what is now St. Augustine, and then returned to Spain, where the king bestowed on him the title of governor of

1 10 12

4 6 8

7 8 8

1506

1510

1511

1550

1551

1591

1599





Florida, and he prepared to go and conquer it. But, in his first attempt, he received a death wound from the opposing savages, and went to seek his fountain of youth beyond the grave.

1520. Vasquez de Ayllon made a marauding expedition from St. Domingo to Chicora (now called South Carolina), for the express purpose of getting slaves. The timidity and wonder of the natives, at sight of the astonishing strangers, were charmed away by gifts; and throngs of them came on board. Suddenly anchor was weighed, and they were carried into slavery. Charles the I. of Spain (just elected to be Charles the V. of Germany also), rewarded Vasquez for this cruel act by appointing him governor of Chicora. He spent his fortune in fitting out a fleet to go and conquer the country; but when he arrived, the hostility of the outraged natives prevented success, and, Cortez having in the mean time conquered Mexico, de Ayllon died from mortification and wounded pride at his own failure.

1525. Stephen Gomez, in the Spanish service (who had been with Magellan in 1519, in the first vessel which went round the world), undertook to find a northwest passage to India. He explored the United States coast, the harbors of New York and New England, and made the first map of the coast.

Finding no passage to India, he filled his vessel with natives, whom he sold as slaves. After his time, no Spaniards explored the coast of the United States above what is now Florida. But Spain named the whole coast, as far as Nova Scotia, Florida.

1526. Another attempt was made to conquer Florida, by Pamphilo de Narvaez, who carried out three hundred men for the purpose. But it failed; for the cunning natives, who had doubtless heard of the conquest of Mexico, enticed the whole

party into the interior by tales of gold mines, and led them about until they were exhausted. After having rambled eight hundred miles, they reached again the spot from which they had started; and such as were left of them put to sea; but a storm arose, and all perished with the vessels, except four or five, who several years after reached Mexico in the greatest destitution!

1537. Still another attempt to conquer Florida was made by Ferdinand de Soto. He was one of the companions of Pizarro in the conquest of Peru. That brilliant exploit roused his ambition and cupidity; and going home to Charles V., resplendent in the gold he had gained, as his share of the spoils of Cuzco, he asked leave to go and conquer Florida. It was granted; and he was appointed governor of Cuba. No expedition to the New World was ever fitted out so splendidly. Vasco Porcallo, an aged man of Cuba, lavished his fortune on the preparations; and the adventurers from Spain were wealthy; many of them nobles, who had sold magnificent estates at home to be replaced by *El Dorados*\* in the West.

When De Soto landed with his eight hundred men on the shores of Florida, he sent back the ships in which they came, that they might feel they must conquer or die. The natives played the same trick on this party that they did on that of Narvaez. They led them astray with stories of gold mines. If by chance an Indian was honest enough to say he knew of no golden treasures, the Spaniards would kill him. They explored in their wanderings all the Southern States up to the Apalachian mountains, the Mississippi river, and even west of the Mississippi. They were frightfully cruel to the natives. On one occasion they set fire to an Indian town, and 2500 Indians perished. It is interesting to see on the other

\* *El Dorado* means city of gold.

hand how the natives defended themselves, now by craft, now by force. The party reached the Mississippi, and explored all its western branches south of the Missouri. After five years of incredible perseverance and hardship, De Soto's health gave way, and he died on the banks of the great river he had discovered, and was buried in its waters in 1542.

1565. More than twenty years after, Philip II., king of Spain, heard that some French Huguenots had gone to Florida to plant a colony. Some say that it was the French government itself that gave the information! Being entirely devoted to the interests of the Catholic church, Philip II. was roused to a new exertion to conquer Florida. He sent out for this purpose Melendez, who had served in his armies against the Protestants of Holland; and he had also acquired riches in Spanish America; both of which facts recommended him for the purposes of Philip. He was named governor of the country, which was indefinitely bounded; and 2500 men were given him for a colony, including Jesuits and other ecclesiastics, and married men. Domestic animals, a right to import 500 negro slaves, and all materials for civilized life were also given him.

Melendez reached the coast of Florida and entered a harbor on the fête day of St. Augustine, whose name he bestowed upon it. Encountering a French vessel, and being challenged, he said; "I am Melendez, of Spain, sent with strict orders from my king to gibbet and behead all the Protestants in these regions. The Frenchman who is a Catholic I will spare; every heretic shall die."

He landed and went through all the Catholic ceremony of taking possession of the land for Philip II. Proclaiming him king of North America, he celebrated Grand Mass to consecrate the act. Some Indians showed him the way to the French colony at St. Johns. He gained possession of the fort,

and massacred the garrison with the women and children. He pursued his victory with frightful cruelty, and actually put to death nearly a thousand Frenchmen. A few Catholics were saved, and some mechanics were kept for slaves. The rest were executed, "not," as Melendez said, "as Frenchmen, but as Protestants."

A terrible revenge was executed upon the Spaniards by a Frenchman of Normandy, of the name of Gourges. Bancroft tells the story; and it has become the foundation fact of a poem. But as it was a private and not a public act (France as a nation doing nothing, because the sufferers were Protestants), its effect was transient. It did not interrupt the Spanish possession of St. Augustine. Gourges left on the shores many Spaniards hanged, with the inscription over them "Hanged not as Spaniards, but as butchers and assassins."

Thus the oldest town in the United States, St. Augustine, was founded in 1565, on the bloody ruins of the French colony, and owes its origin to Philip the II.'s zeal for the Catholic church. It is forty-two years older than Jamestown.

But, although no other settlement was made in the United States in this century, the blue and purple representations in our map show that the French and English made several attempts.

#### FRENCH ADVENTURERS.

1523. Francis I. of France, sent out Verrazzani, an Italian navigator in his service, who explored the coast of the United States, and wrote an account of his discoveries, which is to be found in Hakluyt's *Voyages* (an interesting old book). There had been also voyages earlier than this, for the French already frequented the banks of Newfoundland for fish; and had named Cape Breton.



1534. James Cartier was sent out for the purpose of colonizing. He entered the river St. Lawrence, on the fête day of that saint, and therefore so named it. On returning to France, with an account of its size and beauty, a colony was easily formed, including even some young noblemen. But a winter in Canada cooled their enthusiasm, and they returned to France disappointed. Some years after, Lord Roberval, of Normandy, obtained a commission of proprietorship of New-France, as the French had named the whole of the country, and, making James Cartier the leader of the expedition, in 1540 tried again. Lord Roberval subsequently quarrelled with Cartier; but they each made separate attempts at colonization, by wintering in Canada two successive years, and then both of them abandoned the enterprise forever.

1562. But religion, a more powerful motive than love of adventure, or desire of gain, prevailed to induce Coligny, the champion of the Protestant cause in France, to plan a colony for his co-religionists in America. After one unsuccessful attempt, by means of a faithless agent named Villegagnon, he entrusted a new expedition to John Ribault, a firm Protestant and experienced navigator, who carried out some veteran troops, and some of the most promising of the young Huguenot nobles. They reached the southern part of the United States coast, and named the rivers whose mouths they entered, for the rivers of France. At last, they came to the river St. Johns, and there built a fort, which they called Fort Carolana, in honor, strange to say, of Charles IX. But this colony returned to France in less than a year, the religious wars so occupying Coligny, that he could not send out requisite supplies.

1564. When peace was restored, he renewed the effort with greater success. The emigrants had not, however, completely mastered the difficulties attending the commencement

of a colonial enterprise, when they were attacked and entirely destroyed (1565) by the Spanish Melendez, as has been told.

#### ENGLISH ADVENTURERS.

The English founded a claim for the whole United States coast, upon the voyages of discovery made by the Cabots in 1497.

1501. Henry VII. granted a commission to emigrants; and early in the century, North American savages were exhibited in England. Fishermen also went to the banks of Newfoundland, and in 1517, Sebastian Cabot made his last voyage in the English service. But the absorption of Henry VIII. in personal matters; the development of Protestantism in Europe; and all that was connected with that great event in England (which broke away from the Papacy, and then, under Mary, for some years persecuted Protestants), so wholly absorbed the energies of England, it was not until the latter half of Elizabeth's reign, that English voyages of discovery, and plans for colonization in America were renewed.

1576. Martin Frobisher commenced a series of voyages in search of a north-west passage to India. As he had picked up a piece of shining earth in Labrador, one wide-spread excitement arose in England for the search of gold there, which stimulated a great expedition, ending in disappointment, of course.

1578. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, with more rational plans of colonization, procured a patent from Queen Elizabeth, and made two voyages to the coast of the United States; but on his return from the second, he lost his life in a storm near the Azores, and only one small vessel of his fleet, reached England.

1579. Sir Francis Drake (who was buccaneering in the Pacific Ocean), in a voyage in which he circumnavigated the

globe, went up on the western coast of North America, and discovered Oregon, which he named New Albion.

1584. Sir Walter Raleigh, not discouraged by his kinsman's (Sir Humphrey Gilbert's) want of success, procured a new patent from Queen Elizabeth, and sent Captains Amidas and Barlow to find a place for colonization on the Chesapeake. They touched still farther south, upon an island on the coast of North Carolina, and carried home so charming an account of the aspect of the country, that a colony was sent out in 1585 by Sir Walter Raleigh, the fleet being commanded by Sir Richard Grenville and the appointed governor of the colony, Ralph Lane.

The fleet arrived June 24th, 1685, at Wocoken Island, near the mouth of the Roanoke. This colony was not, however, successful, owing mainly to the incompetence of Governor Lane, and especially his want of wisdom and humanity toward the natives. Yet humanity had been enjoined upon him; for Sir Walter Raleigh was intensely alive, in all his noble sensibilities, with indignation and horror, at the cruelties the Spaniards had perpetrated upon the inhabitants of the new world, and he wished that the English colonization of America, should be a blessing to the poor natives. The foolish management of Lane, the details of which Mr. Bancroft gives in his history, discouraged the colony; and in the next year, when Sir Francis Drake on his return from the West Indies, called to see how the enterprize of his friend Sir Walter Raleigh was prospering, he took upon his fleet the whole despairing company, and carried it back to England. Sir Walter's own personal misfortunes prevented an immediate renewal of the attempt; and, therefore, during the sixteenth century, North America was yet wholly uncolonized by the English, though claimed, under the general name of *Virginia*.

But Sir Walter's attempt was not entirely in vain. One of



the company, the celebrated Hariot, wrote an account of it, and introduced to Europe three productions of the American soil, of immense consequence, the potatoe, Indian corn and tobacco. Hariot's account can be found in Hakluyt's Voyages. It ensured a renewal of the enterprise of colonization in the next century.

Pupils will now be prepared to answer questions upon the 16th century.

### LESSON III.—SPANISH ADVENTURERS. (*Red.*)

Who was Ponce de Leon? Where is to be found an account of his adventures? What was he doing when he discovered Florida? Why did he name it Florida? How did Charles the Vth reward him for this discovery? What became of him?

What was Vasquez de Ayllon about, when he discovered Chicora? What do *we* call Chicora? How did he succeed in his undertaking? How was he rewarded for this cruel act? What was his success and fate?

Where had Stephen Gomez been in 1519? What did he undertake to do in 1525? What harbors did he explore? What cruel thing did he do, when he was disappointed of finding the North-west passage to India?

When did Narvaez attempt to conquer Florida? How many men had he? How did the Indians act? How many miles, and where did the Spaniards ramble? What became of them at last?

Who was Ferdinand de Soto? How came he to be appointed to conquer Florida? What were the preparations? What was his first act when he landed? How did the natives

manage? Where did the party go? How did they act toward the natives? What discoveries did the Spaniards make? What became of de Soto? When did he die? Where was he buried?

What was the cause of Melendez being sent to conquer Florida? Who was Melendez? How was he induced to go, and fitted out? Why did he so name St. Augustine? How did he announce himself to the French? What did he do first on landing? How did he find the French fort? How did he act? To what then does St. Augustine owe its origin? How much older is it than any other city of the United States? Was Melendez' cruelty punished? How long was it from Ponce de Leon's discovery to the founding of St. Augustine? What happened in 1512? 1520? 1525? 1526? 1537? 1542? 1565? Why is the red put in the eighth subdivision of the representation of these years? Why in the fifth subdivision of 1565? Why in the upper triangle of the second subdivision? What does the orange color mean?

#### LESSON IV.—FRENCH ADVENTURERS. (*Blue.*)

What did Francis I. do in 1523? Where can be found the account of Verrazzani's discoveries? Had the French any earlier knowledge of the coasts of North America? What are proofs of this?

What did James Cartier do in 1534? Why did he so name the St. Lawrence? Under what different auspices did he go out in 1540? What discouraged all these attempts at colonization of Canada?

What induced Coligny to plant a colony in America in 1562? What faithless agent did he employ? What did he

send out next? Where did John Ribault land and build a fort? Why did they afterward abandon Fort Carolana? When was the attempt renewed? What destroyed them at last? Why is blue put into the third subdivision of 1565, and in the lower triangle of the second subdivision.

### LESSON V.—ENGLISH ADVENTURERS. (*Purple.*)

What did Henry VII. do in 1501 to encourage emigration to America? What was done by the English in 1517? What probably prevented English activity in this direction the next fifty years? What did Martin Frobisher undertake to do in 1576? How happened an expedition to be fitted out in search of gold to Labrador?

What wiser person made some voyages in 1578? What became of him? Who discovered Oregon in 1579? What name did he give to it?

What great man undertook American colonization in 1584? What did Captains Amidas and Barlow accomplish? Who commanded the fleet sent to Roanoke in 1585? Who was governor of the colony? Where did it land? Why did it not succeed? How was Sir Walter Raleigh disposed towards the natives? When and how did the party return to England?

What several names were given by different nations to what is now the Atlantic coast of the United States? Where is to be found an account of the attempts of Sir Walter Raleigh, and who wrote it? What productions of America did he introduce to Europe, which were discovered by this colony?

What happened in 1501? 1517? 1576? 1578? 1579? 1584? 1585? In what historical work is there an account of all these adventurers? In what books especially can be read

the accounts of the early Spanish and French adventurers in the South? In what old English book of Voyages can be read an account of the English adventurers and others?

N.B.—To these books we might perhaps add, the History of Sir Amyas Leigh, a novel by Kingsley.

#### TABLE OF THE 17<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY.

- 1602. Bartholomew Gosnold attempts to colonise Nashaun.
- 1605. Portroyal in Acadia, first permanent French colony.  
George Weymouth's voyage and piracy.
- 1607. Jamestown, Virginia, first permanent English colony.
- 1608. Quebec founded by Champlain. Pocahontas saves  
Capt. Smith.
- 1613. English first attack French. Short Indian war. Pocahontas' marriage to John Rolfe.
- 1615. Dutch settle on the Hudson and Manhattan Island.
- 1620. Pilgrims settle Plymouth. First slaves in Virginia.
- 1622. Pocahontas dies. Indian war. Indians are conquered.
- 1623. Shores of Maine and New Hampshire settled.
- 1629. English take Quebec. Peace with France restores it.
- 1630. French found Montreal. De Vries' voyage to Delaware.
- 1634. Maryland settled by English Catholics.
- 1635. Connecticut settled by Pilgrims from Massachusetts.
- 1636. Rhode Island settled by Roger Williams, and Harvard  
College founded.
- 1637. Swedes and Finns colonize on the Delaware.
- 1644. Indian war in Virginia and in the Netherlands; English  
treaty with the Five Nations.
- 1645. Dutch treaty with the Algonquins.
- 1655. New Sweden conquered by New Netherlands.
- 1659. General persecution of Quakers. Death of Mary Dyer.



- 1663. North Carolina settled by persecuted Quakers.
- 1664. New Netherlands surrendered to the English.
- 1665. New Jersey granted to Berkeley and Carteret.
- 1670. South Carolina settled. Locke's "Grand Model."
- 1675. King Philips' war and death. Narragansetts destroyed.
- 1676. Indian war in Virginia. Bacon's rebellion and death.
- 1681. Pennsylvania and Delaware founded by Penn.
- 1682. La Salle sailed down the Mississippi.
- 1686. French found Fort Niagara. Sir Edmund Andros.
- 1689. "King William's war" with the French.
- 1690. Schenectady burnt, and massacre by French and Indians.
- 1691. Delaware separated from Pennsylvania. College of  
"William and Mary" founded in Virginia.
- 1692. Witchcraft in Massachusetts; 22 Executions.
- 1697. Peace of Ryswick ends "King William's war."
- 1699. French found Biloxi on the Mississippi.

#### LESSON VI.—EXERCISE ON THE PLATE.

Let the pupils take the plate before them, and the teacher will ask, how each event, mentioned in the Table, is represented. The scholar will answer thus: Bartholomew Gosnold's attempt is represented in purple, in the second year-square, eighth subdivision; because he was a remarkable person, &c. It will be very plain how the questions are to be answered, generally speaking. To the questions on 1613, the answer will be: the two wars are represented in the first subdivision of the 13th year-square, by two parallelograms. Each parallelogram is divided into two triangles, and the conquering English are represented in the upper triangles, in purple; the conquered French in one of the lower triangles, in blue; and the conquered Indians in the

other lower triangle, in orange. The purple and orange triangles, in the sixth subdivision, represent Pocahontas' marriage. The explanation of the painted centuries can be consulted, and the scholar give the reason of every representation being just what it is. Chronology is the best system of mnemonics for history, provided the chronology can be easily and thoroughly impressed on the memory ; and this, it is the office of the painted centuries to do. The exercise now proposed, is not of itself a tax on the memory, because the pupils have the plate before them, and answer from the plate ; but by describing the representations and the reasons for each, a careful attention to the plate is secured, and an opportunity for the impression to be made is given. After the Historical Illustrations are studied, there should be a review of the Table, requiring another kind of answers. For instance, the questions should be of this kind : what happened in 1602, 1605, &c., and the answer should be wholly *memoriter*.

And the author begs leave to suggest, that the teachers should follow the questions implicitly ; for it is believed that they are planned on a philosophical view of the nature of memory ; requiring of that faculty an exertion—not painful, but effective for permanent impression. Many young teachers seem to think, that the most painful exertion of memory is the most effective. It is an entire mistake. A teasing method of questioning, destroys the action of memory. We remember nothing so well, as what we have dwelt upon with pleasure. The questions do not require a reproduction of every word ; but sometimes they leave scope for a little narration. Study should be preceded or followed by a perusal of the entire chapters on which the questions are raised, so that a good general impression may be obtained. Nothing is more important in reference to remembering history, than that the mind should feel itself at ease, to contemplate the narra-



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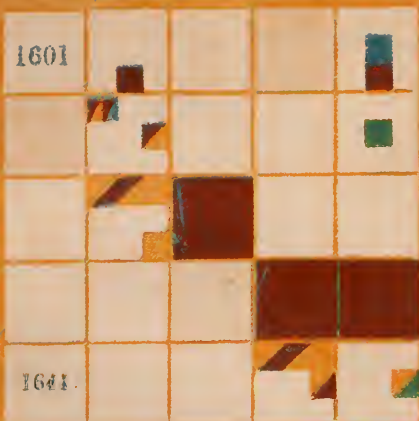
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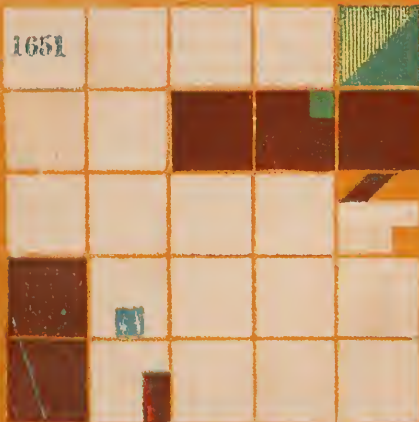
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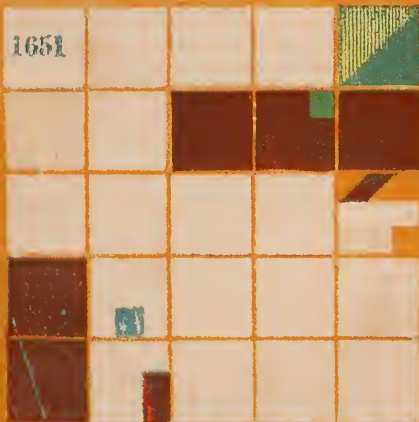
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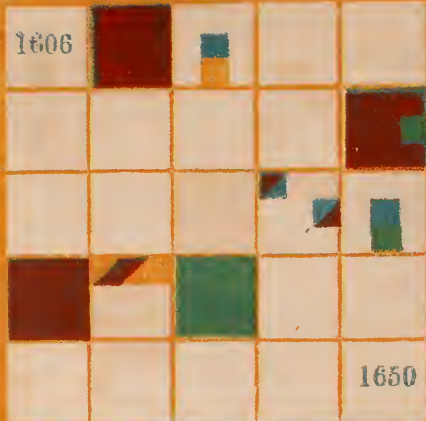
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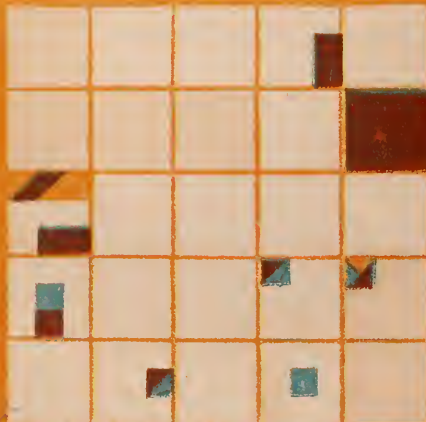
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tive *as a whole*, and quite within its power to grasp. Our questions aim to pick out such points in the narrative, as shall insure the recollection of the whole of it. An important part of the art of teaching, is to make the natural laws of association act vigorously, but the questions of some teachers seem calculated to paralyse these entirely.

## LESSON VII.—HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY—INDIAN TRIBES.

Instead of adding another to the innumerable maps of the United States, which abound in all schools, we propose to give the pupils a practical lesson in geography, in the following manner :

Let the pupils, in the first place, take some, moderately sized map of the United States, and trace all its natural features, namely, its coasts, rivers, lakes, and mountains ; but omit the boundary lines of the States altogether, as our first map must be purely Indian.

The Indians are divided by affinity of language into the ALGONQUINS, the HURON or IROQUOIS, including the FIVE NATIONS and the MOBILIAN TRIBES. Besides these, are the CHEROKEES, NATCHEZ, UCHEES, CATAWBAS, and the TUSCAROORAS, the last of whom subsequently joined the Five Nations. All these lie east of the Mississippi, and comprise the tribes with which the European colonists of the United States came into relation. They can be distinguished from each other by colors, as we shall presently show. Dot a line from lake Nipissing to the junction of the Sorrel and St. Lawrence rivers, somewhat sinking in the middle towards Lake Ontario, which will make the northern boundary of the Hurons ; proceed south, on the western bank of the Sorrel and Lake Champlain, to the junction of the Mohawk and Hudson ; then south-west, touching the sources of the Dela-



ware to the junction of the Susquehanna and Juniata; still onward, to the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany; then northward to the western end of Lake Erie, and along the St. Clair and Lake Huron, which will make the rest of the western boundary. Color the enclosed space blue, to represent the Huron tribes, and write the words HURON or IROQUOIS upon the blue, north of the lakes Erie and Ontario; and south of Ontario, write the names of the Five Nations, *Cayugas*, *Onondagas*, *Senecas*, *Oneidas*, and *Mohawks*, around the lakes and river, which still retain those names; a little west, south of Lake Erie, write *Andastes*, and still further west, *Eries*. For the southern boundary of the Algonquins, dot a line beginning at the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi, along east to the junction of the Cumberland and Ohio; then directly south, till it nearly reaches the Tennessee; then north-east, on the northerly ridge of the mountains, till the sources of the James river are reached; then southeast to Albemarle Sound; then southwest to the Pedee, leaving a considerable space on the sea shore; then along the northern bank of the Pedee to the ocean. All the country north of this line, except what is already painted for the Huron tribes (including New-Brunswick and Acadia), should be painted pink for the ALGONQUINS. The names of their several tribes should be written thus, the *Micmacs*, in Nova Scotia; *Etchemins* or canoe-men, in New-Brunswick; the *Penobscots* and *Androscoggins* on the rivers of the same name; the *Norridgewocks*, on the Kennebec; the *Sakokis*, on the Saco; the *Pawtuckets*, in New-Hampshire; the *Nipmacks*, in Vermont and New-Hampshire; the *Massachusetts*, in the northeast of the State so named; the *Wampanoags*, in Rhode Island, east of Narragansett Bay; the *Narragansetts*, west of the same bay; the *Pequods*, on the Thames, in Connecticut; the *Mohegans*, west of Connecticut River. The general name of

*Abenakis* was given to the Maine tribes, and the *Pokanokets* were the portion of the Wampanoags who lived round Mount Hope, and were governed by king Philip. The *Manhattans* were on the island still so called; the *Wabingas* just west in north New-Jersey; the *Lenni Lenape*, more southerly in New-Jersey, divided into the *Minsi* and *Delawares*; the *Susquehannocks* between the Delaware and Susquehanna. On the eastern shore of Maryland, the *Nanticokes*; in Virginia, the twenty tribes of *Powhatan*; the *Pamlicos*, between the Roanoke and the Tar; the *Corees*, south of the Pamlicos. Between the Ohio and Cumberland rivers the *Shawnees*; in Ohio the *Miamis*; west of the Miami the *Illinois*; north of the Illinois, the *Kickapoos*; north of the Kickapoos, on the south part of lake Michigan, the *Pottowatomies*; in the north, between Lake Michigan and Huron, the *Ottawas*; who also lay north of the Ottawa River in Canada. Between Lake Michigan and Superior, the *Menomonies*; south of Lake Superior, the *Chippewas*; south of the Chippewas, the *Sacs* and *Foxes*. Just south of the eastern part of this line on the Roanoke river, write the word TUSCAROORAS, and draw a strait line from the mountains to the Sound for the southern boundary. Paint this division blue, as this tribe subsequently joined the Five Nations. South of the Tuscarooras, between the sources of the Santee and Pedee, write CATAWBAS, and making an isosceles triangle round the word, whose base shall be towards the west, paint it yellow. West of the Tuscarooras and Catawbis, in the mountainous country towards the Tennessee river, is the Cherokee country, the southern boundary touching the sources of the Mobile, Apalachicola, Altamaha, and Savannah, which can be dotted off and painted green; south of the Cherokees, between the branches of the Altamaha and Savannah, in a parallelogram of about a quarter of the size of the Cherokee country are the UCHEES,

to be painted purple; east of the Mississippi, another small parallelogram, including the present city of Natchez; may be painted vermilion to express the NATCHEZ. All the rest of the southern country should be painted orange for the MOBILIAN TRIBES. These had, however, various names; thus, the *Yamasses*, or the Savannah; the *Edistos*, between the Santee and *Edisto*; the *Mikasukies*, in Florida; the *Chickasaws*, north of the Natchez, on the west bank of the Tennessee; the *Choctaws*, south of the Natchez; the *Pascagoulas*, south of the Choctaws; and the *Creeks* or *Muscogees*, eastward of these.

If these names are written, as indicated, with a fine pointed lead pencil, on the colors, a very strong impression will be made on the memory of the scholar doing it, of the localities of the Indians in the middle of the seventeenth century; and this will make the historical illustrations of it more intelligible. In the progress of American colonization, the Algonquin tribes drew off to the Northwest, and the Mobilian to the South and West.

It would be a good plan to have still another map, traced with the natural features; on which the European settlements made, and towns founded, might be inserted, *as they come along in the narrative*. Any atlas of the United States will enable the teacher to dictate the particulars of such a map, the making of which will be also mnemonic for *the history*, as each place will be associated with some event. Wilson's history of the United States has a thorough Geographical index in its marginal notes, which the teacher can consult.

#### VIRGINIA.

1607. A small fleet, commanded by Captain Newport, and having on board one hundred and five emigrants, among whom were Bartholomew Gosnold and Captain John Smith,

entered the Chesapeake bay on May 23d, 1607, and made a new and successful attempt at colonizing America. They named the two headlands as they entered the bay, Cape Charles and Cape Henry, in honor of the two sons of the king of England; and, as sailing west, they found themselves in a river, they named it James, from the king himself; and when, after sailing sixty miles, they found a point of land, which seemed to them suitable, they landed their company, and commenced building the first English town in America, which they called Jamestown.

Bartholomew Gosnold had, in 1602, made a voyage directly across the Atlantic ocean from England; and discovered and named Cape Cod; but finding it a bad place to land, he proceeded South as far as Nashaun, the largest of a group of islands which he called the *Elizabeth*, in honor of the great Queen of England, who died in that year. He had the plan at that time of founding a colony, and actually built a fort in a little islet in a little pond, in Nashaun, which presented the most attractive appearance. For the whole island was covered with forest trees, and wild fruits and flowers; "the eglantine, the thorn, and the honeysuckle, the wild pea, the tansy, and young sassafras; strawberries, raspberries, grape vines, all in profusion." But after all he did to persuade them he could not induce his men to stay. They feared the Indians; and that they should be left to perish, as the Roanoke colony had been in the century before. But this voyage, and another, by George Weymouth, who, in 1605, explored these islands and the whole coast and carried home five Indians, excited attention in England; and assisted in stimulating the enterprise which issued in the establishment of Jamestown, whose patrons were the Governor of Plymouth, Sir Ferdinand Gorges (to whom Weymouth had given three of the Indians he had stolen, and who was rich); also Popham, Lord Chief



Justice of England; and Richard Hakluyt, the heir of Sir Walter Raleigh's rights, and the compiler of "The Voyages," a very reliable source of information.

The money for the outfit was advanced by a London company of merchants, of which the above persons were members, and who had commercial rather than colonizing views. The emigrants hoped to find gold, and were not well organized for colonization. They were forty-eight gentlemen to four carpenters; and they found very soon, that beautiful as the country looked, there was *a snake in the grass*. The climate was deleterious: it was excessively hot, and the labor of building huts was very distressing to gentlemen who did not know how to work. Before autumn fifty died, Bartholomew Gosnold among the number; and those who survived were all ill, excepting four or five. If Captain Newport had not gone home with the ships, they would certainly have gone on board, and returned to England. To add to their troubles, they quarrelled among themselves; and, though jealous of Captain John Smith from the first, on account of his superiorities, they were obliged to call him to the command.

Captain Smith was only thirty years of age, but he was an old adventurer. In his early life he had fought for the United Provinces; then he had travelled over France, Italy and Egypt; and "panting for glory," as Bancroft says, "had sought the borders of Hungary; and it was there," he continues, "that the English cavalier distinguished himself by the bravest feats of arms, in the sight both of Christians and infidels; engaging fearlessly, and always successfully, in the *single combat* with the Turks, which, from the days of the crusades, had been warranted by the rules of chivalry. His signal prowess gained for him the favor of Sigismund Bathory, prince of Transylvania. At length, with many others, he was overpowered in a sudden skirmish among the glens of Wal-

lachie, and was left severely wounded in the field of battle. A prisoner of war, he was now, according to the Eastern custom, offered for sale, 'like a beast in the market place;' and was sent to Constantinople as a slave. A Turkish lady had compassion on his misfortunes and his youth, and designing to restore him to freedom, removed him to a fortress in the Crimea. Contrary to her commands, he was there subjected to the harshest usage among half savage serfs. Rising against his task master, whom he slew in the struggle, he mounted a horse, and through forest paths escaped from thralldom to the confines of Russia. Again the hand of woman relieved his wants; he travelled across the country to Transylvania, and there, bidding farewell to his companions in arms, he resolved to return to his 'own sweet country.' But as he crossed the continent he heard the rumors of civil war in Northern Africa, and hastened in search of untried dangers to the realms of Morocco. At length, returning to England, his mind did not so much share as appropriate to itself the general enthusiasm for planting states in America, and now the infant commonwealth of Virginia depended for its existence on his firmness! His experience of human nature under all its forms, and the cheering vigor of his resolute will, made him equal to his duty. He inspired the natives with awe, and quelled the spirit of anarchy and rebellion among the emigrants. He was more wakeful to gather provisions than covetous to find gold; and strove to keep the country, more than the faint-hearted to abandon it."

The colonists had been told to seek the passage to the Indies by some stream, that the people of that day supposed must lead across the intervening land; and though Smith knew it was an impossible quest, yet, for the sake of making discoveries, he took some companions and sailed up the Chickahominy (which is one of the branches of the James river).



Here his companions, who had disobeyed his instructions, were taken prisoners and put to death by the Indians; but he contrived to save his life by displaying a pocket compass, and impressing the savages with a sense of his superiority. They carried him about to their various settlements, and endeavored by incantations and otherwise to discover the secret of his power. At last, however, fear prevailed to bring them to the cruel determination of putting him to death; and his head was actually bowed to receive the blow of the fatal tomahawk, when Pocahontas, the daughter of the chief Powhatan (who had from the first showed favor towards the English), having been won by the beautiful stranger's gentle caresses of herself, threw herself upon his neck, and, clinging to him, declared that they should kill her if they killed him.

"The barbarians," says Bancroft, "whose decision had long been held in suspense by the mysterious awe which Smith had inspired, now resolved to receive him as a friend, and to make him a partner of their councils. They tempted him to join their bands, and lend assistance in an attack upon Jamestown; and when his decision of character succeeded in changing the current of their thoughts, they dismissed him with mutual promises of friendship and benevolence. Thus the captivity of Smith, did itself become a benefit to the colony, for he had not only observed with care the country between the James and the Potomac, and had gained some knowledge of the language and manners of the natives, but he now established a peaceful intercourse between the English and the tribes of Powhatan; and, with her companions, the child, who had rescued him from death, afterward came every few days to the fort with baskets of corn for the garrison."

Pocahontas was at this time only twelve years old. Seven years after she was married to an Englishman. The circum-

stances were quite interesting: A party of foragers had stolen this lovely girl from Powhatan, who lived in a village of twelve wigwams, just below Richmond; and adding insult to injury, they insolently demanded a ransom. But the indignant father refused, and the first Indian war was in 1612. While Pocahontas remained a prisoner, John Rolfe, who seems to have been an innocent and devout enthusiast, was impressed with a sense of the duty of marrying and converting the young heathen; but, as Christians in those days were very Jewish in their superstitions, he was tormented with the fear of uniting himself to "one of barbarous breeding and accursed race," lest he should be exposed to the punishment denounced against those Israelites of old, who "sanctified strange women." But, as he said: "the Holy Ghost cried audibly in his ears day and night," and "after great struggle of mind, and daily and believing prayers," he resolved "to win the favor, and labor for the salvation of the maiden." Pocahontas was docile of heart and quick of comprehension, and soon was led to renounce her heathen faith, and profess faith in Jesus Christ. She was baptized in the church of Jamestown, the font being "hewn in the shape of a canoe, out of a tree." Immediately after, she was married to Rolfe; and from them is descended the Randolph family of Virginia. Three years after her marriage, she went to Europe with her husband, and was presented to the queen; and, by her natural charms, her innocence, and virtue, she won universal favor. She was the first Christian of her nation. But the climate of England proved fatal to her, and she died in 1622. "This early death," Bancroft says, "was fortunate for her; for dwelling in memory under the form of perpetual youth, she was spared the suffering of seeing her race exterminated." Her marriage had been associated with a treaty of peace between the English and the tribes of Powhatan, which had

been kept sacred during her father's life, who died four years before his daughter. After his death, his successor, becoming alarmed at the encroachments of the English, and their violences, organized an extensive conspiracy, and, in 1622, commenced a frightful massacre. Three hundred and forty-seven persons were killed; and the whole English population would have been exterminated, but that the night before the execution of the plan, a converted Indian revealed the plot to an Englishman whom he wished to save; and by this means, the larger part of the colony was prepared against the attack. A war of extermination followed, and a law remained in force for ten years, that no peace should be concluded with the Indians. To teach them the use of fire-arms, had been, and long continued to be, an offence punishable with death; and, undefended as they were by armor and powerful weapons, they had no chance in open battle. Smith, on one occasion, vanquished eight hundred with fifteen men. The Indian population was not more than one to a square mile, and Powhatan's territory was 8,000 square miles. They, therefore, presently were glad to give up to the English, and no further trouble took place till 1644, when stimulated by the continual hostility of the settlers, and finding England was in trouble, they organized another conspiracy, and killed 300; but at that time they seemed to be panic struck from within, for they stopped without any apparent cause. Again the war of extermination was renewed, with such effect, that it was thirty years before another Indian war occurred, (which will be spoken of in connection with the Insurrection of Nathaniel Bacon, of which it was the immediate occasion, but not the cause). With this war of 1644 in Virginia, was contemporaneous another Indian war, on the Hudson, which belongs rather to the history of New York, and which was terminated by the treaty with the Five Nations.

But we have anticipated. It is necessary, in order to understand the insurrection of 1676, to keep in view the political history of Virginia, from the time of Captain John Smith's assuming the direction of the colony. The patent of King James to the London company, granted land from thirty-four to thirty-eight degrees of latitude, on condition of homage, and a payment of a fifth of all the gold and silver they should find. The colony was actually under four sovereigns: the king of England; one council in London, and one in Virginia—the members of the London one to be nominated by the king, and those of the Virginia one, to be nominated by the London Council; and finally, under a Commercial Corporation! The emigrants had not one right of self-government, except that of trial by jury. The king made a code of laws, in addition to the common law, and established the Episcopal Church.

The emigrants were organized into a kind of community, under Capt. Smith, who exacted six hours of labor a day, teaching the gentlemen the use of the axe and hoe. He also sent to England for "thirty carpenters, husbandmen, gardeners, fishermen, blacksmiths, masons, and diggers-up of tree-roots,"—a new supply of colonists having come out, "not of the right sort." But just as they arrived, he had met with an accident which obliged him to return to England in search of medical aid. There could have been no greater misfortune. Quarrels with the Indians immediately ensued, which brought on a famine; and the whole company was reduced to sixty. Had this "Starvation Time" endured ten days longer, they would have been exterminated; but just at this critical juncture, Lord De la War arrived, with five hundred new emigrants.

This timely succor arose from the better views respecting the colony, which had begun to prevail in London, inducing



the grant of a new charter, conferring on the London Commercial Company, the powers the first charter had reserved to the king; and the appointment of the good Lord De la War as governor, was made in order to stimulate emigration.

Lord De la War was received with great rejoicings, and proceeded to the restauration of the colony with religious services. Immediately the face of things was renewed, though the community plan was retained. Every morning all the colonists repaired, for religious service, to the rustic church, which was kept trimmed with wild flowers. Then they took breakfast. From six till ten were the morning hours of labor; from two till four the evening hours.

But Lord De la War's health soon failed, and his mild and genial rule was succeeded by the martial law of Sir Thomas Dale. Possibly this change was made necessary by the workings of the community plan; for we find the rights of private property immediately after established, and mentioned as a cause of marked improvement. The stimulus of private property has always been found indispensable to the production of industry and wealth, except where a definite religious object has concentrated and energized the social sentiment; as, for instance, among the Shakers, and some other religious communities. "Thirty men laboring for the colony" says Bancroft, "accomplished less than three men were now able to perform for themselves." But he adds, "though the sanctity of private property was recognized, as the surest guarantee of industry, the rights of the Indians were little respected."

The prosperity of the colony now encouraged the company in England to get a third patent from King James, which gave the governing corporation a democratic form, though it still conceded no rights to the emigrants. Bounties of land were now granted to emigrants, and as rewards of merit. Thus, in 1615, Bancroft says: "the sect of gold-finders had



become extinct; and now the fields, the gardens, the public squares, and even the streets of Jamestown, were planted with tobacco."

Possession of property, gained from the earth by individuals, suggested the need of popular rights. Difficulties arose between the colonial proprietors and the managers of the governing corporation, who wanted dividends on the capital they had laid out in planting the colony, and in sustaining it during its infancy. Dale's martial law was succeeded by Argall's; and during his administration the difficulties culminated, necessitating change of measures. The "mild and popular Yeardley," was then appointed governor; and under his compromising auspices, the first colonial assembly that ever met in Virginia, convened in Jamestown. This was the year before the Pilgrims emigrated (1619).

As soon as this legislative liberty was granted to the colonists, Virginia began to be regarded as their country by Englishmen. Within three years 3,500 colonists were added, including large companies of women—of which sex, only *two* are mentioned to have emigrated before. First ninety, afterwards sixty "maids of virtuous education, young, handsome, and well recommended," were induced to go out, for the express purpose of marrying the colonists, who paid the company, at whose expense they were sent out, 120 or 150 pounds of tobacco apiece, for these wives! This was in 1619; and in 1621, a written constitution was given to Virginia, with a form of government analagous to that of the English; no orders of the court of London bound the colony, unless ratified by the general assembly of Virginia—the supreme power being held to reside in the hands of the colonial parliament, and of the king as *king of Virginia*.

Sir Francis Wyatt, the successor of Yeardley, brought this constitution to Virginia. It was obtained by the patriot party

in Europe, among whom Bancroft mentions the name of the Earl of Southampton, the well known patron of Shakspeare.\*

To the student of universal history, it is an interesting fact, that the basis of American liberty was given to Virginia by such persons. It throws light on the suggestion which has been made, that there was a suppressed revolution in England at this time, of which the American Constitution intimates the character, had it been developed. New light, it is probable, will break out from this portion of English history, when it has been more thoroughly studied, for much as is known of it, the arbitrary power which executed Sir Walter Raleigh, and circumscribed the liberty of speech of Lord Bacon, spread over events a veil which has not yet been lifted, and puzzled the understanding of men with respect to the eternal laws of development, even to the present day.

Negro slavery was engrafted into the colonies the year before the establishment of free representative government in Virginia. In the same year that the ship of the pilgrims neared the New-England shore, a Dutch barque, loaded with twenty negro slaves, was approaching that of Virginia. Bancroft, in his Fifth Chapter, gives a picture of slavery as it existed at that time in the world; and a slight sketch of its history from the earliest ages. He shows that there were also white slaves in Virginia; but even then, the emancipation of these was more easy and certain than that of negroes. The increase of negroes was not great at first. In the whole century it did not amount to an 100.

When Charles I. came upon the throne of England, he did not interfere with the popular administration of Virginia. He recognised its free assembly by making an offer of a contract

\* In the history of the colony of Virginia, Bancroft and Hildreth differ. A mature student should compare their statement and views.

for the whole crop of tobacco, which was to be considered by the members; and they proved their independence and power by rejecting the conditions of the contract, which they were assembled to approve. Virginia being thus respected, continued in good will to Charles I. throughout his troubles; and "the lovers of monarchy," as Bancroft says, "indulged the hope that the victories of their friends on the Chesapeake would redeem the disgrace that had elsewhere fallen on the royal arms." Many royalists emigrated to Virginia, both before and after Charles's death.

The "navigation act" of Cromwell came nigh, however, to bring about trouble between the Commonwealth and Virginia. This act of consummate policy, which enabled the commerce of England successfully to dispute the empire of the seas with the Dutch, threatened the interests of Virginia; as it forbade all trade between the British colonies and any other nation than England. This was resisted in Virginia and Barbadoes, and Cromwell sent out some troops and a commissioner to enforce the act; but they went to Barbadoes first, where they were met by an armed resistance, Barbadoes being the first colony which stood upon colonial rights. Cromwell was quick to take an idea; and being thus taught what the spirit of colonial resistance might be, he concluded to respect the rights already conceded to the Virginians. The assembly was called to consult upon the application of these laws to themselves; and the result was virtual independence. It was agreed that free born PEOPLE OF VIRGINIA should have all the liberties of the people of England; should intrust their affairs, as formerly, to their own assembly; should remain unquestioned with respect to their past loyalty; and should have as free trade as the people of England. They were compelled, however, to tolerate other churches than those of England: and these terms, so favorable to the development of

liberty, as Bancroft says, were faithfully observed, till the Restoration of the Stuarts, in 1660.

Bancroft gives a charming account of what he calls "the Paradise of Virginia," during the middle of the seventeenth century. He describes the planters living on their separate estates, with their laborers about them (who, though slaves, were then always working for their liberty),\* far from the civil wars and commotions of England, and learning to value—by enjoying the privileges of independency. They governed their own affairs in an assembly where all had a vote; and even elected their governor; for the commonwealth conceded, with every other right of self-government, this privilege also to the Virginians. It established the supremacy of the popular branch of the government; and every freed slave had a right to vote. But the planters, with singular want of foresight, elected for their governor Sir William Berkeley, who had been the last royal governor, and was a great bigot. This shows that though democratic with respect to each other, their sympathies were aristocratic and royalist. It is said Berkeley wrote to Charles II. while he was in exile, and invited him to America. But Cromwell had no leisure to see to such things, even if he knew of them.

This prevailing royalist sentiment explains why the Restoration of the Stuarts to the throne of England was "hailed on banks of the Chesapeake with delirious joy." In the excitement of the moment, most important privileges and rights were lost sight of. Sir William Berkeley immediately assumed his old position as a royal governor; and issued writs for electing an assembly *in the name of the king*. The new

\* It does not clearly appear whether negroes were included among these slaves who were working for their liberty. But there were few negroes then in comparison with white slaves.



assembly was composed of landholders and cavaliers, not more than two being members of the next preceding assembly. It immediately showed its political character by disfranchising a magistrate for "factions and schismatical demeanors."

But when the new government of England undertook to establish in America the colonial monopoly of the navigation act, which broke up the free trade of the people of Virginia, the assembly itself became alarmed; the colonists being obliged to buy foreign goods of the English merchants, at the highest prices, and sell their own goods for whatever they chose to give; because they were allowed no vessels of their own, to go and buy and sell where they pleased! The entire colonial traffic too was restricted to favor the English merchants. But they took a very unwise measure in selecting Sir William Berkeley to go to England and present the grievances of Virginia for redress; he did not understand his mission at all; and while in England employed himself in obtaining, in company with several other nobleman, the proprietary grant of the Carolinas. For Virginia he secured not one franchise.

Thus at the epoch of the Restoration, the aristocratic part of the assembly was already in the ascendancy, and modified the democratic institutions of Virginia into an aristocratic form. A committee appointed to revise the laws, restored the ancient statutes. The Episcopal church, which had been compelled to tolerate independent churches, was now reestablished, and *every one* was taxed to support it. The vestries were allowed to govern the parishes. No nonconformist was to teach, on pain of banishment. The greatest severity against Quakers was revived, and the hard laws executed. Baptists were banished or fined. A tax was levied on tobacco, to pay the magistrates. The governor was no longer to depend on the colony, but on the king for his salary, and Berkeley seemed



insatiable for revenue. Not only the governor and council, but even the judges were all appointed, directly or indirectly, by the crown; and the county courts, independent of the people, possessed and exercised the arbitrary power of levying taxes. There was no appeal from these courts, except to the governor or council. To complete the revolution, this assembly, chosen for two years, assumed by its own act an indefinite continuance of power, and was not dissolved until the Rebellion of Bacon in 1676.

The immediate occasion of this rebellion was the Indian war which was renewed at this time by reason of a great movement among the Indians. The Five Nations, *i. e.* the Senecas, Cayugas, Onondagas, Oneidas, and Mohawks, who inhabited the country south of Erie and Ontario, had driven the Susquehannas from their original seats; and they came down upon the tribes of the Potomac, which alarmed the colony of Maryland; and, on one occasion, John Washington, an emigrant from Westmoreland, England, and ancestor of George Washington, who had settled on the south side of the Potomac in Virginia, went across the river to lend his assistance against the Piscataways. Soon after, six of the Indian chiefs came to the English camp to arrange a peace, and were treacherously seized and put to death. To revenge this cruel act, the Indians made a series of massacres all the way from Mount Vernon to the James river. When they had glutted their revenge, they proposed peace; but it was rejected by the English, who determined to keep up the war, and not being satisfied with the governmental mode of attack and defence, demanded that Nathaniel Bacon should be made their leader. This, Governor Berkeley opposed, refusing him a commission, on account of his known popular principles. Nathaniel Bacon was a young and wealthy planter, on the banks of the James river, who, born in England during the struggle of the demo-

cratic revolution, had received a popular inclination of his principles. He was quick of apprehension, brave, choleric, yet not without discretion; of pleasant address and powerful elocution; and by all these qualities a great favorite with the people of Virginia. It is not strange, therefore, that he should resolve on action without Berkeley's leave; and the people, ripened for insurrection by the abuses in the administration we have just related, flocked to his standard. He took up arms at the next incursion of the Indians, when Berkeley rashly proclaimed him and his followers rebels, and levied troops against them. But Bacon pursued his own course, and the continuing Indian war at length compelled Berkeley to give way. The long-lived assembly, elected at the epoch of the Restoration, sixteen years before, was dissolved; and a new one was elected, in which Bacon himself was returned a member. This assembly is memorable for the counter revolution displayed in its legislation, which broke up the church aristocracy, restored the elective franchise to the people, reformed the arbitrary laws of taxation, and demanded a commission for Bacon, as leader against the Indians.

Berkeley with difficulty yielded most of these things to the irresistible force of the new assembly; but he refused to sign the commission for Bacon, to which insane decision he held fast until Bacon withdrew from the assembly, and reappeared with 500 armed men.

It is a curious coincidence that the ratification of the new legislation was completed on July 4th, 1676; exactly one hundred years before the grand Declaration of Independence of England, written by a son of Virginia, began a new era in the history of human liberty.

All would now have gone on well, but for the petulance of Berkeley; for Bacon's measures against the Indians, restored security and peace. But the old cavalier violated an amnesty

which had been proclaimed on the 4th of July, and summoning a new convention, even against *its* advice, proclaimed Bacon a traitor.

This was the signal for civil war. Berkeley was deposed by the party which rallied around Bacon, and which included the most eminent men in the colony, with Drummond at their head, who had formerly been made by Berkeley himself, Governor of North Carolina. A new convention was called, and Virginia was completely revolutionized; government being reëstablished on the basis of popular power. England was engaged at this time between the rival factions for the Duke of York and the Duke of Monmouth, and did not interfere.

But Berkeley withdrew beyond the Chesapeake, where he collected a band of desperadoes eager for plunder. He promised to all slaves immediate freedom if they would join his banner; and with these and some Indians, and by the aid of all the English vessels in the harbor, he sailed down to Jamestown, which was the only village in Virginia; and there he landed and took possession.

Bacon learnt this just as he had disbanded his troops, after a successful expedition against the Indians. He immediately rallied his followers, and hastened to Jamestown, (securing as hostages the wives and children of the royalists who lived on the way). He threw up an intrenchment, and the royalists fled to their fleet. It was determined in the council of the insurgents, to burn Jamestown, that it might not again afford shelter for the royalists; and Drummond and Lawrence set fire to their own houses, which were the finest in the place, and the State-house and the church were also consumed. Bacon then pursued the royalist army, and the troops of Berkeley came over to his party. Thus victory was gained without a battle.

But at this critical moment, Bacon, the victorious, was

seized with a sudden sickness and died. Thus the liberal party was left without a head; while, at the same time, the royalists found a good leader in Robert Beverley, who, having possession of the ships in the river, restored the supremacy of the governor, by a continued war in detail.

The vindictiveness of Berkeley was frightful. Twenty-two gentlemen were hanged, and the carnage was only stopped at last, by a remonstrance from the very assembly he had convened, one of whom said "he would have hanged half the colony, had we not stopped him!" A public proclamation of Charles II., also censured his conduct. Bancroft reports the king to have said, "the old fool has taken away more lives in that naked country, than I, for the murder of my father!"

But the memory of Bacon was maligned. To speak or write in favor of the rebels or the rebellion, was made, if thrice repeated, evidence of treason; and to speak ill of Berkeley or his friends, was punished by whipping or a fine. Thus, the true history of Bacon's rebellion was not made known till the nineteenth century.

Berkeley returned to England immediately, and was so unpopular with all parties, that guns were fired, and bonfires were kindled at his departure; and before he had an opportunity to wait on the king, the unfavorable report from America so agitated him, that his brother ascribed to it his death, which occurred soon after.

The royalist power was now paramount in Virginia, and the tyranny and exactions of Berkeley's successors, Culpepper and Lord Howard of Effingham, to whom it was granted for thirty years, checked voluntary emigration and depressed industry. Every act of Bacon's assembly was repealed, except the single bad one, permitting the enslavement of Indians. Every measure of reform was made void, and every aristocratic feature of the legislation of Berkeley's time, perpetua-



ted. Instead of volunteer emigrants, the prisoners made in the conquest of Monmouth's rebellion, and by the judicial convictions of the cruel Jeffries in James II.'s reign, were sent out and sold as slaves, for a period of ten years. It is remarkable how large a portion of the original Virginians were indented slaves.

But there were fountains of liberty left in Virginia, notwithstanding all. There were no cities; and the planters lived independently in their log-houses, on their plantations. And being far from courts, they thought and felt freely, as was proved by the views made manifest in the middle of the next century.

When William and Mary acceded, no essential improvement took place in political affairs. Sir Edmund Andros, fresh from imprisonment in Massachusetts, was, strange to say, the first governor that William sent out, and Nicolson the next.

No free developments of the constitution could take place under such men. The Virginians, however, found means to express their independence of mind by passive resistance. They would not vote money, on requisition of the governor, and refused to contribute means for the French wars.

In 1691, Nicolson established the college of William and Mary, fifty-five years after the Pilgrims had established Harvard College. This was certainly an advance on Berkeley's time, who, twenty years before, wrote thus: "I thank God there are no free schools or printing; and I hope we shall not have any these hundred years; for learning has brought disobedience, and heresy, and sects into the world; and printing has divulged them."

But this college was an aristocratic institution, after all. There was no free general education for *the people*, organized; nor has there been, even to this day.



N.B.—It will be seen that Bancroft is my authority throughout; and I shall deem it success, if I induce the reading of his original work, written in a style so calculated to the imagination of youth. Students should also look into a State history of Virginia, and read lives of distinguished Virginians, for personal anecdotes. They will find, that, unlike other sciences, history is more easily remembered, when its great events are associated with little details and anecdotes, that seize the imagination. The mind must be humored and feel free, if it would remember permanently. The memory has peculiar relations with the affections. We remember what we love or hate. Hence the importance of looking out personal circumstances and anecdotes, with a view of interesting ourselves, rather than charging the mind with the *duty* of remembering. Lippincott's Cabinet Library of the Histories of each of the States, should form a part of every school library; and for quite young children, a History of the United States, by Miss A. B. Berard, makes a pleasing reading book.

#### LESSON VIII.—QUESTIONS ON VIRGINIA.

Who were the distinguished persons engaged in the colonization of Jamestown? Describe the scene on James river, May 23, 1607? Why were the capes, river, and town so named? What former attempt at colonization had Bartholomew Gosnold made? Tell all about it. What do you remember of Weymouth's voyage in 1605? Who now patronized and paid for the outfit of the colony to Jamestown? Was the attempt well organized? What were the first difficulties? Why did they not return to England at once? How came Captain John Smith to be put at the head of affairs?

Give the history of Captain John Smith, up to this time.\* What did he do in America? How did he fall into the hands of the Indians? How was he saved from destruction? What advantages grew out of the whole affair? How came Pocahontas to be a captive of the English? How came she to be married to John Rolfe? What was her subsequent history? Describe the Indian war that took place after her death. Describe the Indian war of 1644? Was there at that time Indian war anywhere else, but in Virginia? Was the colony self-governed, at first? What was the government? How did Captain Smith organize the social life of the emigrants? What were the causes of "the starvation time?" How came there to be a new emigration, under Lord De la War? How did Lord De la War commence? Was the community-organization continued? What was the daily routine? How came martial law to be soon after introduced, by Sir Thomas Dale? Why was private property established? What change of charter and measures was the consequence of the new prosperity that ensued? What plant was cultivated as early as 1615, as the staple of the colony? How came *popular rights* to be suggested? What difficulties arose? How did these issue in 1619? What effect on the increase of emigration had this legislative liberty? What is told of the emigration of women? What great advantage was secured in 1621? Was negro slavery yet established in Virginia? How did it begin, and when? How did Charles I. treat Virginia? and with what effect? How did Cromwell treat Virginia? What was the social condition of Virginia, in the middle of the seventeenth century? What was the government under "the commonwealth?" What governor did the

\* For some pupils this question would need to be analyzed by the teacher into many. But it is a good plan to require of such as are capable to tell the whole story. It teaches the art of graceful narration.

people elect? What does this choice show? and how did Berkeley act? How came the Restoration of the Stuarts to be hailed with joy? What changes did Sir William Berkeley make? What measures showed the character of the new assembly, elected at this time? But what action of the British government alarmed this new assembly? What unwise measure did it take for redress? How did Berkeley employ himself in England? What changes did this aristocratic assembly make in the government and laws of Virginia? How long did it sit? What was the occasion of Bacon's rebellion? What caused the Indian war of 1676? How came a quarrel to arise with Berkeley? What had been the history of Nathaniel Bacon, hitherto? What was his character and influence? Why did he rise in insurrection? How came a new assembly to be elected? What changes did this assembly make? Did Berkeley agree? How did Bacon get an appointment as General? When was the new legislation ratified? How did Berkeley drive the insurrection into civil war? Why did not England interfere? How did Berkeley get an army? What was the course and end of the war? How came the supremacy of the Governor to be presently restored? What were the consequences to the insurgents? and to the memory of Bacon? What became of Berkeley? What reaction took place in the legislation? What check was there on voluntary emigration after this? By what means was the population increased? What fountains of liberty were left in Virginia? Who were the first governors under William and Mary? How did the Virginians express their sentiment of independence? When was the college of William and Mary founded? What speech had Berkeley made about schools and the press? What happened in Virginia in 1607? 1608? 1613? 1622? 1644? 1676? 1691?

## NEW-NETHERLANDS, 1615.—NEW-YORK, 1664.

It is a curious coincidence, that, in the same year that Jamestown was settled by the English, the Dutch formed a company for exploring America. Bancroft, in his fifteenth chapter, gives an account of their early discoveries and tradings in America; when Henry Hudson discovered the river, called sometimes by his name, and sometimes North River; and where, probably, they built a fort on Manhattan Island in 1614. But on an island just below Albany, they undoubtedly built Fort Orange in 1615. He also tells how in 1620, the same year in which the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth, Cornelius Mey, entering Delaware bay, one of whose capes still bears his name, sailed up the river Delaware, which he called the South River, and built, just below the site of Camden, Fort Nassau. From this time the whole country between the rivers, was called by the Dutch, New Netherlands; and they even stretched the name to Cape Cod, subsequently building a fort on the Connecticut river, which they called *The Good Hope*.

The first governor was Peter Minuets, who established himself in a new block house on Manhattan Island, in the midst of windmills and cottages with straw roofs, calling the place New Amsterdam; and initiating an experiment in feudal institutions, of which there are some traces yet to be found in the constitution of society in New York.

To perfectly understand this statement, it is necessary to have some idea of the political constitution of the United Provinces of Holland, which did not, although it was a Republic, permit what we call popular liberty; or even that degree of it which the English always claimed, although their kings did not always allow it.

But the student must go for this knowledge to the Fifteenth



Chapter of Bancroft : it is enough to say here, that it naturally followed from their Dutch origin, that New Netherlands should be divided into lordships. Every man who, within four years, would plant a colony of fifty souls, might possess a tract of land, extending sixteen miles in length, or eight miles each side of a river, in absolute property ; and was denominated a patroon. It was stipulated, however, that he should purchase his lands of the Indians, and not take possession of them violently. The patroon was to exercise judicial power in his domain, but subject to appeals ; and he might institute the government of any cities that should grow up. No provision was made for schools or churches, but they were "spoken of as desirable." The Dutch company, which was the final court of judicial appeal from the patroons, promised to furnish the manors with negroes, if the traffic should prove sufficiently lucrative ; and reserved the Island of Manhattan as their own chosen seat of commerce. The Dutch spirit of monopoly forbade the colonists to make any linen or cotton fabric ; "not a web might be woven, not a shuttle be thrown, on penalty of exile."

Of course, the agents of the colony, within the prescribed four years, appropriated to themselves the most valuable part of New Netherlands, becoming patroons at once. Van Rensselaer, for instance, then bought by his agent, his extensive domain, stretching from Albany to twelve miles below the mouth of the Mohawk. Lands were occupied in Delaware, which, however, were soon reconquered by the Indians ; also, on the Connecticut, which were retained by the Dutch long after they were surrounded by the English settlers.

In 1643-4, New-Netherlands was desolated by an Indian war. This arose from private revenge on both sides. In a drunken brawl, a white man had been murdered by the Raritan. Kieft, the Dutch Governor, demanded him of his tribe.



The chiefs offered two hundred fathoms of best wampum as ransom, pleading reasonably, "you yourselves are the cause of this evil; you ought not to craze the young Indians with brandy; your own people, when drunk, fight with knives, and do foolish things; you cannot prevent mischief till you cease to sell strong drink to the Indian." But Kieft was inexorable. To complicate the difficulty a tribe of Mohawks descended from the mountains, and claimed the Raritans as their tributaries. They begged the Dutch to defend them. But the ruthless governor, instead of giving them assistance, had an hundred of them murdered at once in cold blood. At this, all the Algonquin tribes burst forth in revenge; laying waste villages, murdering the farmers in their fields, carrying children into captivity, and even driving multitudes of the timid householders home to Holland. In one of these massacres, was murdered the famous Ann Hutchinson, who had been banished from Massachusetts for taking the "liberty of prophesying."

But the war lasted only a few weeks. Roger Williams, who happened to be in Manhattan, on his way to England, succeeded to bring about a temporary peace; and, in 1645, a more extensive peace was made with the River chiefs, and chiefs of New Jersey and Long Island, by the mediation of the chiefs of the Five Nations. On this occasion, a sentence of infamy was passed upon Kieft, who, two years after, embarked for Holland in a vessel laden with riches. But he never reached home. His vessel was wrecked on the coast of Wales, and the infamous governor was buried in the waters.

New Netherlands, in the middle of the seventeenth century presented a much less attractive appearance than the English colonies of Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Maryland or Virginia; and, in the time of the fourth governor

Stuyvesant, a struggle commenced of the emigrants with the Dutch company, for privileges of free trade. And these were obtained, with such remarkable consequences, that the merchants of Amsterdam, who so reluctantly granted them, began to see the future;—prophesying, three hundred years ago, in this wise: “when your commerce becomes established, and your ships ride on every part of the ocean, throngs that look towards you with eager eyes, will be allured to embark for your island.”

In 1655, while Stuyvesant was still Governor, New Netherlands conquered New Sweden, which had grown up on the banks of the Delaware, on territory which the Dutch claimed as a part of their colony. The origin and history of this Swedish colony must be told here.

In 1626, about a dozen years after the first settling of New-Netherlands, Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, projected a colony in America, on a cosmopolitan scale, which he hoped would prove an “advantage to oppressed Christendom,” a “security to the wives and daughters of those whom wars and bigotry had made fugitives.” He subscribed 400,000 thalers to encourage colonization, and called the scheme “the jewel of his kingdom.” But the whole thing was delayed by the bursting out of the Thirty Years War (the grand struggle of the Protestant States of Germany against the Catholic, for supremacy, of which Gustavus Adolphus was made the General-in-chief.) To this war he was obliged to give his money and energies; but just before the battle of Lützen, in 1632, in which he lost his life, he recommended this colonization scheme to the States of Germany, assembled at Nuremberg. Oxenstierna, the regent guardian of Christina, who succeeded Gustavus as sovereign of Sweden, did not let the scheme of his beloved master drop, but fitted out a company of emi-

grants with two vessels, a religious teacher, and merchandise for traffic with the Indians.

It was in 1638 that this little company of Swedes and Finns entered Delaware bay, and bought of the natives a tract of land, extending from Paradise point, as they called Cape May, to the falls near the city of Trenton; and near these falls they erected a fort, which they named for the young queen *Christina*.

This was the only American colony of this century, in which was made an express provision against slavery. They said in their constitution, "Slaves cost a great deal, labor with reluctance, and soon perish from hard usage. The Swedish nation is laborious and intelligent, and surely we shall gain more by a free people with wives and children." Good accounts of the country were carried home, and a hundred families embarked at once, composed of the peasantry of Finland and Sweden. One of the suburbs of Philadelphia owed its origin to this increasing emigration.

But Kieft, then governor of New-Netherlands, protested against this occupation of lands, which the Dutch had included in New-Netherlands. He was afraid, however, to assail a colony of Sweden, whose power was at that time paramount in Europe, by reason of its early success in the Thirty Years War. But after the treaty of Westphalia, which closed that war, in the time of Stuyvesant, a more active protest was made. The Dutch built a hostile fort at the mouth of the Brandywine, which the Swedish governor, Rising, attacked and overpowered. Immediately, Stuyvesant, collecting a force of 600 men, sailed into the Delaware, and conquered, one after another, all the Swedish forts. The Swedes could do nothing but submit. Oxenstierna, their patron, was no more; and Sweden itself had ceased to be a formidable power in Europe. In the final adjustment, Rising obtained the conces-

sion of their estates to such colonists as would remain quiet. Bancroft, who gives the history of this colony in his Fifteenth Chapter, says, "it maintained its distinct existence for a little more than sixteen years. \* \* \* At the surrender, they did not much exceed seven hundred. Free from ambition, ignorant of the ideas which were convulsing the English mind, it was only as Protestants that they shared the impulse of the age. They cherished the calm earnestness of religious feeling; they revered the bonds of family and the purity of morals; their children, under every disadvantage of want of teachers and of Swedish books, were well instructed. With the natives they preserved peace. A love for their dear native country, the abiding sense of loyalty towards its sovereign, continued to distinguish the little band. At Stockholm they remained for a century the objects of a disinterested and generous regard; affection united them in the New World; and a part of their descendants still preserve their altar and their dwellings, round the graves of their forefathers."

The same measure that the Dutch measured to the Swedes, was in less than ten years meted to them by the English, who had never allowed the Dutch claim to settle on the lands that they had, in the century before named as part of Virginia. When Charles the II. was restored to the throne of his fathers, and was portioning out the Atlantic coast into principalities, wholly ignoring the actual settlement of the Dutch in New Netherlands, he granted to the Duke of York, (afterwards James II.), the whole of New Netherlands, from the South to the North River. Consequently, in 1664, the Duke of York sent one Captain Nichols to take possession of it. Gov. Stuyvesant was already engaged in disputes with the English settlers of Connecticut, about the Dutch fort of Good Hope, at Hartford; and had found his greatest difficulty to be the inclination of the New Netherlanders themselves to go under the



English rule. The New Netherlanders were not merely Dutchmen ; but Germans, Jews, Frenchmen, Huguenots, and even English had settled among them, encouraged by the commercial policy of the Dutch Company ; and this motley collection were restive to see the English colonies, with political institutions of so much greater freedom than their own. Mr. Bancroft, in his 15th chapter, gives a very intelligible account of the rise of the popular element against the aristocracy of the Patroons, as well as against the arbitrary rule of the Dutch Company, who saw everything as merchants calculating for gains, rather than as men sympathizing in the assertion of human rights. It was not, therefore, strange that the colony should compel Stuyvesant to surrender the government to the Duke of York's agent, which he did do ; and New Netherlands became New York without effusion of blood.

But the change took place at an unlucky moment. James II. was a tyrant by instinct and principle. He did not give to New York institutions such as had been secured to Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts, by the Puritans. The English crown had been for some years consolidating all the colonies from Maryland to the St. Croix, under Sir Edmund Andros ; and no popular representation was allowed to New York till 1684, when Dongan was Governor ; nor even then did the administration answer the hopes of the people.

In 1688, therefore, the province rose, and, with Jacob Leisler, a German merchant, at their head, deposed the royal governor, and instituted a government of their own ; not doubting that William and Mary would sanction it as legitimate. But William listened to the representations of the tory party ; and, acting as king of England, not as Stadt holder of Holland, he sent out a new governor, as well as a new commander of the fort. These persons immediately arrested both Leisler and his son-in-law, Milbourne ; and, because they hesitated to obey



the summons to surrender at once, accused them of high treason, and had them executed, with the concurrence of the tory assembly. The assembly, however, did itself assert the right to representative government, and, during all the rest of the century, the contest for popular rights went on with successive royal governors. Not till 1698, when the Irish Earl of Bellemont became governor, and somewhat tranquillized the colony by his sympathy with popular tendencies, did the provincial Assembly and the English Parliament concur in making some tardy amends to Leisler's memory, by providing for his family.

Meanwhile, in 1665, New Jersey, and in 1681, Delaware, had been successively set off from New York, and made into separate governments, as will be more particularly told hereafter.

The Indian Wars, and the action of the Five Nations especially, give a good deal of romance to the history of New York, in the last century. Let the Student who is able, consult the XVII Chapter of Bancroft for particulars of this. He there proves that the colony was largely indebted to the Five Nations, for keeping the French on the northern side of the Saint Lawrence.

In Chapter XIX, the political Student may also pursue the history of New York into the 18th century, and see how it was educated by the arbitrariness of the English Government,\* for the democratic struggle of the Revolution.

#### LESSON IX.—NEW NETHERLANDS, NEW SWEDEN AND NEW YORK.

What did the Dutch do about exploring America in 1607? Where did they settle in 1614—15? What did Cornelius

\*For a lively picture of the manners and customs of the Dutch Society of New York State, see also, Mrs. Grant's "Memoirs of an American lady."

Mey do, in 1620? Where was The Good Hope built? Who was the first Dutch Governor? What did the Dutch claim as New Netherlands? What did they call their settlement on Manhattan Island? How were the colonies to be constituted? What was the privilege of a *Patroon*, and on what condition? What laws did the Dutch Company make for the colonists, and what did it pledge itself to do for them? What place did it retain, as the seat of its own commerce? Who occupied the lands as *Patroons*? What was the extent of the settlements? What was the cause and history of the Indian War of 1643—4? What remarkable person was killed in these wars? What political struggle did the colonists have in Governor Stuyvesant's time, and with what result? What conquest did New Netherlands make in 1655?

When and how and where was New Sweden settled? By whom and when was this colony projected, and with what motives? Why was it delayed, and who finally set it going? How did Kieft and Stuyvesant severally act towards the Swedish colony? What was the result of Stuyvesant's energy? How does Bancroft characterize this Swedish colony? What was the immediate occasion of the surrender of New Netherlands to the English? What was the real cause of this revolution? What advantage was it to the people, to change from Dutch to English rule? Who appointed the first English Governors and how? When was the first popular assembly allowed? What revolution occurred in New York in 1688, and what was its issue? Were the subsequent royal governors satisfactory to the people? What was the action of the Earl of Bellemont? What happened in 1615? 1620? 1645? 1655? How are these events represented and why?

## MASSACHUSETTS.

ON December, 1620, a single ship, holding 101 emigrants, disembarked its company on the Plymouth rock. The name of the ship was the Mayflower. The emigrants were THE PILGRIMS. It was a company of English Puritans, who, thirteen years before, had emigrated to Holland.

In the year 1607 (the very year that Jamestown was settled), the church of John Robinson in England, being beset and watched, night and day, by the agents of the government, punishing them for their nonconformity to the established Church of England, resolved to seek in exile, exemption from persecution. Their first attempt was frustrated; the whole company being arrested, and all detained for a month; seven of them much longer. Another attempt made the next year, proved hardly more fortunate; for as one part of their number were going off to the ship in a boat, a company of horsemen appeared, and seized the women and children, who were waiting on the shore for its return. The poor creatures, however, having no homes to which they could be sent, were presently set free from prison, and after incredible sufferings and delay, joined their friends in Holland.

There, in the city of Leyden, the English Puritans were formed into a church, under the pastoral care of their minister Robinson. They attained among the Dutch the highest reputation for industry and virtue. But they were not content to have their children brought up Dutchmen. They deprecated the merely commercial character, and early began to think of finding in America a homestead, where the best seeds of their English nationality might germinate, and be watered by Puritan Christianity.

Mr. Bancroft in his eighth chapter, gives the history of the development of Puritanism in England, with a vivid picture

of the civil affairs of that country at this time ; and those who read it will be surprised that the Puritans should hope to get a PATENT from King James, for establishing dissent, even in a distant colony. But they could promise to promote the fishing interest ; and, by this means, mainly, after many unsuccessful negotiations, they at length formed a partnership with some men of business in London, who were to send them to America. The terms were these : the services of each emigrant were reckoned as a capital of ten pounds, and belonged to the London Company. All profits were to be reserved till the end of seven years, when the whole amount, and all the houses and lands, were to be divided equally among the shareholders.

It was not a very brilliant prospect ; but the spirit that animated this colony, was not commerce, but religion. They went to plant a church in the wilderness. On the eve of their departure from Leyden, they held a fast, and Robinson preached a sermon, “breathing a freedom of opinion, and an independence of authority,” says Bancroft, “such as was then hardly known in the world.” “I charge you before God and his blessed angels,” said he, “that you follow me no further than you have seen me follow the Lord Jesus Christ. The Lord has *more truth yet* to break forth out of his holy word. \* \* \* I beseech you to remember it,—’tis an article of your church covenant,—that you be ready to receive whatever truth shall be made known to you from the written word of God.”

“When the ship was ready to carry us away,” wrote Edward Winslow, “the brethren that stayed in Leyden, having again solemnly sought the Lord for us, and with us, feasted us that were to go, at our pastor’s house—being large ; where we refreshed ourselves, after tears, with singing of psalms—making joyful melody in our hearts, as well as with the voice,



there being many of the congregation very expert in music ; and indeed it was the sweetest melody that ever mine ears heard. After this they accompanied us to Delft Haven, where we went to embark ; and then feasted us again, and after prayer, performed by our pastor, when a flood of tears was poured out, they accompanied us to the ship ; but we were not able to speak one to another, for the abundance of sorrow to part."

In the Rotunda of the Capitol at Washington, is a picture of this parting scene ; Robinson at prayer ; and the distinguished persons of the colony represented with great care, according to the truth of history ; though upon the deck of the vessel, instead of at his house.

Two vessels started at first ; but one put back ; their intention was to go to the Hudson, but they came to land at Cape Cod ; and after some days exploring for a more propitious and inviting spot, they landed at Plymouth.

They had constituted their government, while yet on board ship ; electing John Carver, governor, having covenanted and combined themselves together into a civil body politic, to enact, constitute and frame such just and equal laws, constitutions and offices, as should be thought most convenient for the *general good*,—for they had undertaken the enterprize "for the glory of God, and advancement of the Christian Church."

Every detail of the early history of the first Pilgrim colony has an interest. But we cannot dwell on them. By the spring, one half of the company was dead by hardship. For three years they were constantly liable to starvation ; and once were reduced to four or five kernels of parched corn for a meal.\* Neat cattle were not brought into the colony till the

\* When the ship arrived from England which relieved them from this extreme distress, they instituted the Festival of Thanksgiving, which is still held annually.



fourth year of the settlement. At first the labor and property were in common; but in a few years it were seen that separate property and labor was more satisfactory and profitable; and as they soon showed more skill than the Indians did in cultivating corn, the Indians abandoned its culture for the chase, and bought their corn of the settlers.

The Pilgrims had no plan of seizing land from the Indians without paying for it. But it happened that a pestilence had desolated the country a few years before their arrival; and thus they found an open field for settlement. At first, some Indians had approached them, and then fled; and they had prepared for hostility. Miles Standish had organized a military force, and took occasion to display its formidable character. Soon after, the chief of the Wampanoags mustered courage to make them a visit, and say, "Englishmen, welcome." The shyness of the Indians had arisen from the traditions of the violences of the early discoverers. Their confidence probably arose from their observation of the different purposes and character of the new settlers, whom they now told to take possession of the depopulated regions. Massasoit, chief of the Wampanoags, always remained their friend. Canonicus, chief of the Narragansetts, was more suspicious, and at one time sent to Governor Bradford a rattle-snake's skin, full of arrows. Governor Bradford sent it back filled with powder and shot, and Canonicus was awed into harmlessness. In three years, a colony being sent out to Weymouth by the London Company, rather in recklessness of the rights of the Plymouth settlers, and which got into trouble with the Indians, was magnanimously defended by Miles Standish, with his little company; and this doubtless made a salutary impression upon the Indians of the nature of the English power.

This Weymouth colony, which failed in a year, and was

dispersed,\* was only one proof of the want of good faith of the London Company. When Robinson and the rest of the Church of Leyden, asked for assistance to get to America, the Company refused it, and the venerable pastor died in Europe. At last, however, the English Company were bought out by eight of the most enterprising of the colonists, who took as pay a six year's monopoly of the trading interest. After that, the common property being equally divided, and agriculture fairly established, the cultivators became really freeholders.

It was an anomalous government, virtually independent, for they were without a king's patent. Their institutions found "the guarantee of their stability," as Bancroft says, "only in their individual virtues." The whole body of the male inhabitants constituted the legislature, until their settlements were so far extended as to suggest the representative system. The Governor was chosen by universal suffrage. The perseverance of the colony in the midst of its hardships and deprivations, is to be ascribed wholly to the earnestness of the religious impulse which created it. It is one of the most remarkable proofs that lie on the page of history, that a truly strong state may be derived purely from the spiritual element. In the same year that the Pilgrims planted themselves in America, intent on the kingdom of God and his righteousness, and trusting in God that all material things would be added thereto, the first factory was built by the East India Company at Madras. Not three centuries have yet passed away, and the contrast of the Empire of the United States of America and that of the British East Indies, records God's judgment on the two enterprises. Spiritual wisdom could have read the writing even in 1620; but it now glares, in letters of light, upon the senses of

\* See "The Maypole of Merry Mount," in Hawthorne's *Twice-told Tales*.

the blindest materialist. And this is not the only comparison and analogous lesson that the date of 1620 suggests. When Charles the First came upon the throne of England, a patent passed the great seals, incorporating another company, to encourage emigration, which was called the Company of Massachusetts Bay. This company's charter gave liberty to the members to elect a governor and eighteen assistants annually; and to hold a legislative assembly, in which every stockholder should have a vote, whose acts should be valid without referring them to the King. No restriction was put upon religious freedom by this charter, but there was no guarantee of it. Not a word was said about emigrants who were not stockholders, to whom, of course, was granted not a single franchise.

But the company was a remarkable one. It contained among its members John White, of Dorchester, and John Endicott, John Winthrop, Wm. Coddington, Dudley, Johnson, Pynchon, Eaton, and Saltonstall; and among its friends were the Earl of Warwick and Sir Ferdinand Gorges. They were most of them persons who wanted room to act themselves out according to their consciences. And on the grant of power made to them, the freemen of Massachusetts succeeded in erecting an independent representative government. For Matthew Bradock, the first governor of the company, proposed that the privileges of this charter should be conferred upon the emigrants themselves, and this induced a large part of the company itself to emigrate. John Endicott, for instance, carried a colony of 300 to Salem in 1628; John Winthrop carried a colony of 1500 to Charlestown in 1629, which moved over to Boston in 1630.

It would be interesting to give some details of the colony of Salem, actually planted by Roger Conant, and only strengthened by John Endicott; and of Winthrop's colony, and also of Sir Peter Bulkeley's, which went to Concord; and

John White's to Dorchester. Everybody should read Winthrop's Journal, as well as Morton's memorial of Plymouth, Mrs. Child's tale of Hobomok, and many of Hawthorne's tales\* which illustrate these times with great power, and put their essence into the memory through the imagination and heart.

There is, however, one scene, which deserves especially to be described,—as it exemplifies the principle of what may be considered the distinctive American church, and discriminates it not only from the Catholic church of St. Augustine, and the Episcopal church of Jamestown, but even from the Plymouth church, which were all branches of European churches. Every member of the Salem church had individually been a member of some English church; but what is remarkable,—when they had assembled at a little spring, which yet flows to supply the Salem Town Pump, they all gathered round it, and taking hold of hands, formally resolved that they were “plain unvarnished men,” and “members of no visible church on earth;” they then resolved, that, being gathered in Jesus' name, and believing themselves to be redeemed by his blood, they were of the invisible church of Christ, and therefore competent to form a visible body, representative of it. They then proceeded to choose their teacher, Mr. Higginson, and their pastor Mr. Sheldon, both of whom had been educated for the ministry, and the brethren laid their hands on their heads, as an original ordaining power. At this stage of the proceedings, Governor Bradford arrived, having come across the bay to offer the right hand of fellowship in behalf of the Plymouth Church. They paused to hear his message and replied, that if he offered it as an act of fraternal love, they accepted it gladly, but if he or his

\* For instance, Grandfather's Chair, and Endicott and his men.



church thought to found any authority upon it, to interfere, ever, in their church concerns, they must decline it. Governor Bradford made the necessary disclaimers, and the ceremonies were closed with mutual satisfactions. Thus was Independence initiated in New England, which, however, has never been fully developed into a practical system, except in the Baptist churches. Roger Williams was subsequently a pastor of this church of Salem, and he carried out the principle fully in the church he founded afterwards in Providence, R. I., developing into full self-consciousness the separation of Church and State which was hidden within it.

Massachusetts had, in 1830, every political freedom it has now, except universal suffrage; but these blessings were restricted to members of Churches. This was a point on which Roger Williams first began to differ from his brethren; he saw that men were men, before they were Christians, and had rights as such. He asserted that the Indians were entitled to all the immunities of freemen, though they were heathen. This was logically consistent with the principle that Church membership was dependent on a sovereign election to Grace which was not universal. But the Puritans thought that they could only be saved from the encroachments of the English hierarchy, by making their Church absolute sovereign of their state; and their bulwark against that enemy, proved a support of their own narrowness and bigotry. Their persecution not only of high Churchmen, but of Roger Williams, and the Baptists, and later of the Quakers, developed all the evils latent in their arbitrary conservatism. This dark side of the Puritan character may be studied in Backus's old History of the Baptists of New England, and Sewell's History of the Quakers. In the two former works, there are most interesting details of the real saintship that was exhibited by numbers of the persecuted; and which give



conclusive evidence of the reality of spiritual life on earth.\*

But the Puritans had their bright side also. In 1636, Harvard College was founded by a gentleman of that name, who bequeathed to it half his estate, and all his library. Seven years after, the rent of the ferry was granted by the State as part of its revenue. It became the subject of benefactions from the living and dying. To this institution, and that of the Common Schools of New England, established in 1648, ten years after, the peculiar character of this portion of the United States may be largely referred. It is easy to criticise the Puritans. They had two aspects. Terrible towards any innovation, which they feared, sometimes causelessly, might weaken their independent government, by destroying the unity of the people in the religion which was their strength, they were a bulwark of safety for all the progress that had been actually attained ;—and they showed their good faith, and real democracy of character, by securing to posterity an education which should enable their children to appreciate, criticise and improve upon their fathers in a legitimate way.

“They builded better than they knew,” because, with all their imperfections, they were sincere believers.

Two dangers assailed the rights of the Massachusetts Colony during the 17th century. One was in consequence of the persecution of the English Puritans by Archbishop Laud, which extended into Massachusetts, whither they fled in great numbers. It was he, who moved the formation of a commission to examine the charter, and revoke any thing in it that might be judged prejudicial to the royal prerogative, which Charles the I. was now endeavouring to defend and

\* See especially the story of Obadiah Holmes in Backus' History of the Baptists; who suffered a terrible whipping and was so engaged in prayer *he did not feel it.*

stretch to the degree of absolute power. This aggression was stimulated by the discontents of those persecuted by the Puritans in Massachusetts; and by the unchurched people, who had no rights. .

The other danger was from the members of the parent Council in England; who undertook to become proprietors of extensive territories. In one of their conventions, they took the map, and divided all the country, from the Hudson river to Acadia, into shares, distributing them by lot among themselves! Bancroft dryly remarks that "it was a more difficult matter to take *possession* of their principalities." The Council wished to get the king on their side, and in order to do this, they offered to give up the charter to him, and wrote to Winthrop to send it back. But Massachusetts was true to itself, and the colonists refused to surrender their charter, making a powerful statement to the king of the great hazard he ran of losing his colony, should he insist upon it. The remonstrance arrived just when he was engaged in his struggle with the Scotch Covenanters, and English parliament; and at the same time he heard how all the ministers of Massachusetts had assembled in Boston, to deliberate on this matter; and that six hundred pounds were subscribed for fortifications, in case he should undertake to use force. John Mason, too, Proprietor of New Hampshire, who was a chief mover of the aggressions on the privileges of Massachusetts, died. Thus Charles' attention was turned from the Americans by his absorption in his own difficulties in England; and Massachusetts was left in peace for twenty years, which was a period of great growth.

When the English Commonwealth superseded Charles I. it was naturally favorable to its co-religionists of Massachusetts. It proposed to grant them a new charter; but this was not accepted, because that would have involved the loss of the old

one, which Massachusetts preferred to have confirmed, since it would stand, should the Stuarts be restored. They were as jealous of the arbitrary authority of the English parliament, as of royalty. After Cromwell had conquered Ireland, he offered to the colonists beautiful lands in that island if they would emigrate; but they preferred the rugged New England, to entering under such an obligation to him. When he had conquered Jamaica also; he offered them that island. But though they did not accept his offers, they did not distrust his friendship, and he granted them commercial privileges.

Bancroft, in his X. Chapter, very clearly explains the development of democratic liberty in Massachusetts; and also shows how the very measures taken to hold themselves free from all encroachments from abroad, tended to develop, within their own borders, ecclesiastical tyranny. The Baptist persecution took place in 1635-6, and the persecution of the Quakers between 1656 and 1659. At the latter date, four martyrdoms occurred in Boston; one of the sufferers being Mary Dyer.\*

When Charles II. came upon the throne of England, Massachusetts was fearful of some trouble. But she declared her rights to choose her own magistrates, exercise all legislative, judicial, and executive power, to defend herself by force of arms against aggression, and to resist all parliamentary and royal imposition made without her own concurrence,—sending commissioners to England to get these things acknowledged, and to assure the king—if he would respect their rights—of their loyalty. Charles II., by the advice of Lord Clarendon, confirmed their charter, but took exception to their alledged immunity from royal interference. He required a

\* See the ballad of Mary Dyer, published among "The Lays of Quakerdom."

complete toleration of the Church of England ; an administration of the oath of allegiance ; the administration of justice in his name ; and the elective franchise to be given to every inhabitant of competent estate, whether church member or not. . He also sent out a commission to enforce his authority. The history of the contest which ensued, which was mainly verbal, is given in Bancroft, chapter XII. The toleration laws took effect, but Massachusetts maintained her liberties on all the important points. The English court in fact, did not dare to test the power of the self-respecting and clear headed little colony, which went on prospering.

In 1675, there were 55,000 English colonists in New England. (There had been in 1637, one great Indian war—the Pequod—whose history belongs rather to Connecticut than Massachusetts, and will be spoken of by-and-by.) The Indian population was not more than 30,000 ; and it had been considerably civilized, at least to such degree as to read and write. One Indian youth graduated at Harvard College. The most formidable tribe were the Narragansetts, where Christianity had least spread. King Philip, at the head of seven hundred warriors, professed with pride the faith of his fathers ; and, being shut in between Connecticut and Plymouth, awoke to the danger of the extermination of his race. Bancroft, gives an interesting account of the manner in which he was driven into war, whose disastrous issue he seemed to be wise to foresee ; for, he is said to have wept when he heard that a white man's blood had been shed, which was the immediate occasion of the outbreak. Bancroft says, " They rose without hope, and, therefore, they fought without mercy. For them, as a nation, there was no to-morrow." In less than a month, Philip was a fugitive among the interior tribes of Massachusetts, awakening his brethren to a warfare of extermination. The war raged a year before the Narragansetts



were destroyed. Philip was killed at last, in a swamp whither he had fled, and his only son was sold as a slave in the Bermudas. The Indians, in this war, burnt the villages of Brookfield, Deerfield, Springfield, Lancaster, Medfield, Weymouth, Groton, and Marlborough. In the south, Warwick and Providence, Northfield and Hadley, were also attacked, the last of which was saved by the assistance of Goffe, the regicide fugitive, who dwelt there. The details of these massacres will be found in the histories of the towns and States, and in Hubbard's Indian Wars. But no story of the war is more pathetic than the destruction by the English of the Narragansetts, whose village was burnt; and all their old men, women and babes, perished by hundreds, in the fire. Simultaneously, with this "war of King Philip," a war in Maine broke out of a different origin; for it was stimulated by the French, and will be spoken of by-and-by, in the account of the French wars. It was while the war with the Maine Indians was still going on, that Edward Randolph arrived in New England to settle the yet unadjusted political relations of the colony and mother country. The first effect was the separation of New Hampshire from Massachusetts, and an attempted separation of Maine. But by means of a purchase made of the proprietor, by some of the Boston merchants, Maine became a dependant province of Massachusetts. It cost about 25,000 dollars! and has formed the basis of many large fortunes.

The great point aimed at by Randolph, in the interest of Charles II. and James II., was the subversion of the charter of Massachusetts, and, in 1684, it was adjudged forfeited; and July 2, 1655, a copy of this judgment was received in Boston. Bancroft gives an account of all the negotiations of nine years before this act of violence was ventured, so true were the Massachusetts people to their traditional rights, and their

policy of self-defence. They had deliberately refused to surrender what was now forcibly taken. The first royal governor was a degenerate son of New England, Joseph Dudley ; but in December, 1686, Sir Edmund Andros, "glittering in scarlet and lace," landed in Boston, as governor of all New England.

The despotism of Andros reached nominally from the St. Croix to Maryland, but at present our concern is only with Massachusetts, where he had his capital. It was a signal despotism. Not a town-meeting was allowed, except for the choice of town officers. None could leave the country without a special permit. Probate fees were increased twenty fold ; a tax of a penny a pound, and a poll-tax of twenty pence were laid. The towns, generally refusing payment, the writ of habeas corpus was withheld ; all the inhabitants were required to take new grants of their lands, and pay for these deeds exorbitant fees. Lands reserved for the poor were appropriated by favorites ; the schools of learning were let to fall into decay. Religious institutions were impaired for want of support, and the Episcopal service was performed in churches taken forcibly from the Puritan congregations. Remonstrances, on ground of law, prescription, or natural right, were alike derided. "Do not think the laws of England follow you to the ends of the earth," said one. "You have no privilege left you but not to be sold as slaves," said another. "Our condition is little inferior to absolute slavery," replied the colonists. Increase Mather was sent to England as an agent to seek redress from this preposterous tyranny ; but relief came by the English Revolution of 1688. The news of William's invasion of England reached Boston on the 4th of April, 1689. See Ch. XV. of Bancroft. Andros imprisoned the messenger who first announced it. But revolution was already ripe, and could no longer be suppressed. Andros himself was taken prisoner, and from the balcony of the province house the Insurrection

read a declaration of its sacred right. Simon Bradstreet, the old governor, of fourscore years, came out to see what was passing, and was hailed with a shout, and installed governor.\*

The government of William and Mary, however, disappointed Massachusetts. It never restored the old charter, though it offered a charter with fewer privileges, which the colony accepted, rather than have none. One of the first governors sent out was Dudley, already odious on account of the sympathy and support he had given to Andros. A controversy began at this time between Massachusetts and the Parliament, with respect to their reciprocal rights, which was never settled until the War of Independence, a century afterwards.

It remains to speak of the Witchcraft delusion of 1692, in Salem, by which twenty-two persons suffered death, and fifty-five more were tortured into a confession, that, strange to say, saved their lives. It was the universal belief, at that time, that all power unaccounted for by direct reference to the goodness of God, were gifts of the devil—a Person antagonistic to Divine power. Nervous disorder, animal magnetism, &c., were therefore thought to be devilish inspirations, not only by those who observed them, but by the persons themselves who were exercised by or exercised them. This particular outbreak began in the family of the Rev. Mr. Parris, of Salem; and it has been thought by some, that it arose from a fit of the St. Vitus' dance, which seized two of his children; for that was a disease rife in that locality. The children referred their spasms and strange sensations to an Indian woman, who, as they said, bewitched them. There was nothing in the popular creed to contradict the principle of the excitement. It spread, as it is the nature of any excitement of the imagination to do,

\* See Hawthorne's "Gray Champion," in "Twice-told Tales."

and was largely aided by private malice and revenge. Mr Bancroft, in his nineteenth chapter, has given a very interesting account of the particulars, and has proved a very interesting fact, namely : that it was the royal officers who sat on the bench, rather than the people of Massachusetts, who were responsible for the madness of the hour, and the judicial murders committed. The delusion was not checked till the accusations began to invade the families of the Judges. The Governor, Sir William Phipps' wife was accused. This culmination proved a cure. Witchcraft was not disbelieved, but the whole mode of trying and judging was condemned; and as soon as the trials were fair, there were no more convictions.

## LESSON X.

What remarkable scene occurred in America on Dec. 22d., 1620? What had this company done in 1607, and where had it been meanwhile? Why did they wish to remove from Holland? How did they get means of emigration to America? What were the terms? What was the grand motive of the emigrants? How came they to go to Plymouth? How and when was their government constituted? What was it? What misfortunes had they? Was their property in common or private? How did the Pilgrims get the land from the Indians? Were the Indians friendly? What proofs had the colonists of the bad faith of the London Company? How was the matter settled at last, respecting the property of the emigrants? What was the guarantee of stability to the Colony? What was the actual government? What was the element of its perseverance and strength? What strongly contrasted Empire had its date in the year 1620? Who granted the charter of the Massachusetts Bay Company? What was the



charter? What remarkable persons were in this Company? How came the privileges of the company to be transferred to the emigrants? What colonies were carried out in consequence of this change? What were the circumstances of the formation of the first church of Salem? What political privileges had Massachusetts in 1630? What were the points of difference between Roger Williams and the other Puritans? What was the real reason that the Puritans made their church absolute sovereign of their State? What bad effect had this upon their character and action? What proofs of spiritual life on earth, were brought out by the Puritan persecutions of non-conformists? What good institutions of education did the Puritans found? What danger to the rights of Massachusetts, came from the religious hierarchy of Great Britain, during the first half of the 17th century? What political danger arose from the parent council in England? What dispute arose respecting the charter of the Colony? How was it carried on, and finally settled? When Charles the 1st was beheaded, 20 years after, how did the new government act, and what propose? Why was not the proposition accepted? What other propositions were made by Cromwell, and rejected by the colony? Was not the Colony in good will with Cromwell? How was ecclesiastical tyranny developed in Massachusetts? What persecutions took place, and when? What did Massachusetts do when Charles II. ascended the English throne? What terms did Charles II. make in consequence? In what Indian war had Massachusetts engaged in 1637? What were the relations of the Indians and Massachusetts, in 1676? What was the occasion of "King Philip's war?" What was its issue? How long did the war rage? On what towns did the Indians commit outrages? What outrage did they themselves suffer of a like kind? Where else did an Indian war rage at this time? What new adjustment of the re-

lations of the mother country and Massachusetts, was commenced by Edward Randolph? What effect had this on the relations of New Hampshire and Maine? What great point was aimed at by the Stuarts? How many years did this struggle last? How did it end? Who was the first Governor? When did Sir Edmund Andros arrive; and what was the extent of his authority? What changes did he make in the government of Massachusetts? How were remonstrances answered? Who was sent to England to seek redress? But how did redress come? What happened the 4th of April, 1689? Who was now Governor? Did the government of William and Mary restore the charter? Who was sent out as their first governor? What controversy now arose? What do you remember of the witchcraft delusion. What happened in Massachusetts in 1620? 1636? 1659? 1676? 1686? 1692?

#### NEW HAMPSHIRE AND MAINE.

The coasts of Maine and New Hampshire were visited by Captain John Smith, in the first decade of the century, when he made a famous voyage from Virginia, exploring the shores of New England, of which he left an account with a map.

Two years after the time that the Pilgrims went to New England, the country west of the Piscataqua river was granted by the New England council, to Sir John Mason; and that between the Piscataqua and Kennebec, to Sir Ferdinand Gorges.

About 1623, the coast of Maine, and the towns of Dover and Portsmouth, began to be settled; but they grew slowly. In 1639, Exeter was settled by John Wheelwright, who bought the country on the Merrimac of the Indians, he having been banished from Massachusetts on the charge of antinomian principles. John Mason had died the year before, and

though his grant was made over to his heirs, they so neglected the colony, that in 1641, the settlers solicited to be annexed to Massachusetts, stipulating, however, that they should be represented in its legislative assembly by deputies, who might not be in church-fellowship. This was acceded to by Massachusetts, and both Maine and New Hampshire were annexed, without losing their independence. The union lasted nearly forty years, until the time when Charles II., through Edward Randolph, followed by Sir Edmund Andros, attempted to consolidate the colonies, from Maryland to the St. Croix, into one royal province. Then the Commissioners arbitrarily separated New Hampshire and Maine from Massachusetts, and assigned them to the heirs of the old proprietors, Mason and Gorges. But the Gorges claims were bought up by some merchants of Boston for the sum of £1250, and Maine was governed as a province of Massachusetts until the year 1820. New Hampshire, on the other hand, was organized in 1679, into a royal province; the first ever established in New England. A legislative assembly was granted; but the king reserved a negative voice to himself and his officers. Nevertheless, this assembly showed the true democratic spirit. As soon as it convened, it wrote a grateful and affectionate farewell to Massachusetts, "thankfully acknowledging its kindness while dwelling under its shadow," and then proceeded to decree that "no act, imposition, law, or ordinance, shall be valid, unless made by the assembly, and approved by the people." The first governor was Edward Cranfield; to whom the Mason lands were given in mortgage for his salary. This selfish administration was a continual struggle to put down the people, politically and ecclesiastically; which was as constantly and manfully resisted. After 1688, a merchant by the name of Allen, bought up the claims of Mason and received a commission as governor; and the

political history of New Hampshire thereafter, for a quarter of a century, was a series of lawsuits, until at length the heirs of the proprietary abandoned the claim.

The romance of the history of New Hampshire and Maine is rather grim ; for it consists entirely of Indian Wars, excited by the French Jesuits.

## LESSON XI.

Who first explored and made a map of the coasts of New Hampshire and Maine in 1609 ? Who were the first Proprietors of these States, and with what boundaries respectively ? What settlements were made in 1623 ? What, in 1639, and why ? Why did the settlers of New Hampshire and Maine become united to Massachusetts, and on what terms ? How long did the Union last ? When and how was it separated ? How come Maine to return to its union with Massachusetts ? When and what was the organization of the government of New Hampshire ? But how did it evince a democratic spirit at once ? What do you remember of the first royal governor ? What change occurred in 1688, and with what consequences ? How were the difficulties settled ?

## MARYLAND IN THE 17TH CENTURY.

In March, 1634, a ship of large burden, called the Ark, and a pinnace called the Dove, sailed into the Potomac river ; and the crew, landing on an island there, planted a cross, and took possession of it in the name of England.

This was the fleet of Leonard Calvert, who had come to take possession of the country immediately north of Virginia, for his brother, Lord Baltimore, by virtue of a patent granted



to Sir George Calvert, their father—who had died two years before, while it was passing the great Seal.

Sir George Calvert was a Catholic convert from Protestantism, and the first in the history of Christian Colonization, who actually *established* popular institutions, with the enjoyment of liberty of conscience to all the inhabitants of a State; practically recognizing the rightful equality of Christian sects. Charles I. granted him this patent, for a yearly rent of two Indian arrows, and a fifth of all the gold and silver he might find. Sir George was thus made absolute proprietor, but could not touch the life, freehold, or estate of any emigrant. The emigrants were to legislate independently of the king; and the statutes of the province were to be established by the proprietor, but not without the advice and approbation of the freemen and their deputies. Moreover, all present and future people of the English king were permitted to emigrate to this colony, and the English king covenanted that neither he nor his assigns would ever impose a tax on the emigrants. Calvert was not obligated to obtain the royal assent to the appointments or legislation of his province; or to make known any results officially. He had the power granted him of establishing a colonial aristocracy; but this was of small moment practically. The seeds of popular liberty in his charter, were the only ones that took any deep root in American soil; the rest were fruitless.

The Ark and Dove sailed forty-seven leagues up the Potomac to the village of Piscataqua, near where now is Mt. Vernon. A landing was not opposed by the Indian Chief, who gave leave for the planting of a colony there; but Calvert concluded to descend the stream again to Yoacomoco, where he anchored, and by presents of cloth and axes, hoes and knives, and with things more valuable still, purchased the spot of the Indians, and named it St. Mary's. The whole

country patented, had already been named Maryland, in honor of Henrietta Maria, the wife of Charles the I. who had granted the patent.

The early days of this colony were not attended with the usual hardships. Neighboring Virginia furnished domestic cattle and grain; the friendly Indians taught how to cook the Indian corn, and Lord Baltimore constantly sent out everything necessary for comfort, expending, in two years, 40,000 pounds sterling, on his colony.

Under these mild institutions and munificence, the dreary wilderness soon bloomed with the swarming life and activity of prosperous settlements; the Roman Catholics, who were oppressed by the laws of England, were sure to find a peaceful asylum in the quiet harbours of the Chesapeake; and Quakers, and other Protestants, were here sheltered from Protestant intolerance, by the liberal hospitality of the Catholics. The first popular assembly of Maryland was convened the next year, in consequence of certain claims made by a Virginia proprietor named Claiborne, who had settled on the Island of Kent before 1634. This matter was finally settled in favor of Lord Baltimore. This assembly signally proved that its chartered freedom was a reality: for Lord Baltimore proposed a code of laws, which it rejected, proposing for his acceptance another of its own concocting. The third assembly of Maryland framed a "declaration of rights," which, acknowledging the duty of allegiance to the English monarch, and securing to Lord Baltimore his prerogatives, likewise confirmed to the inhabitants of Maryland all the liberties which an Englishman can enjoy at home; established a system of representative government; and asserted, for the general assemblies in the province, all such powers as may be exercised by the Commons of England. The rights and liberties of the Roman Catholics were assured by this

assembly; but nothing more: and these grand principles of government were politically organized, when the State was yet so small and poor, that "the whole people," says Bancroft, "were obliged to contribute to 'the setting up of a water mill.'"

Bancroft's description of Maryland, in the first years of its existence is a counterpart to that he has given of Virginia. It was a Paradise of peace and plenty, threatened only from without.

The establishment of the Commonwealth of England naturally produced some difficulties in Maryland. When monarchy was overthrown at home, the question arose, whether Lord Baltimore's mimic sovereignty could stand. Claiborne renewed his claims, and fomented rebellion, and for a time compelled Lord Baltimore's deputy, Stone, who was a Protestant, to surrender to him his commission and government; and he assembled at Patuxent a convention of the Puritans, who had been largely invited into the colony by the tolerance of Lord Baltimore. This assembly acknowledged the authority of Cromwell, and *disfranchised the whole Romish party!* Cromwell rebuked this action, and commanded the commissioners "not to busy themselves about religion, but to settle the civil government." The Roman Catholics, however, had already flown to arms, indignant at the ingratitude and injustice of the Puritan party towards Lord Baltimore. Stone was, of course, at their head; but they were discomfited, and Stone was imprisoned. Then the Catholic party, in the city of St. Mary's, acknowledged the leadership of Fendall, a new deputy of Lord Baltimore, who had been engaged with Stone in the insurrection. Meanwhile, Cromwell's commissioners were sustained by the Puritan assembly at St. Leonard's. For a long while things hung in this condition, and nothing decisive was done. Cromwell and Lord Baltimore were both too busy at home to attend to American affairs. A compromise was effected at



last, and the government of the whole province was surrendered to Fendall. This was two years before the Restoration of 1660. At the Restoration, representatives of the Puritans immediately met in the house of Robert Slye, and voted themselves a lawful assembly, refusing to obey the other body, which claimed to be the upper house. Fendall prudently permitted this proclamation. There was, therefore, no authority but that of the assembly and the king of England acknowledged; and Lord Baltimore's deputy was permitted to continue as chief magistrate. When the successful invasion of England by William of Orange became known in Maryland, there were nine deputies ruling under the presidency of William Joseph. Some hesitancy being shown to proclaim the new sovereign, an armed association immediately asserted the right of King William, and drove the deputies to a garrison on the south side of Patuxent river, about two miles above its mouth. There they capitulated; and, on assurance of safety for themselves personally, agreed to exclude all Papists from office! The Protestant party now assumed the government, in the form of a convention, and made an address to King William, denouncing the influence of the Jesuits, and accusing the last government of connivance at murders of Protestants, and of plots with the French and Indians. The privy council of King William, debating on this address, advised a forfeiture of the charter; and King William constituted by his own arbitrary power, a royal government for Maryland. In 1692, Sir Lionel Copley arrived with the royal commission, dissolved the convention, assumed the government, and convened an assembly, whose first act was to acknowledge William and Mary, and the second to divide the country into parishes, as in England, and establish the English Church, to be supported by *general* taxation! "In the land which Catholics had opened to Protestants," says Bancroft, from whose History of the Uni-



ted States the above account of Maryland is abridged, "the asylum of every persecuted sect, the Catholic inhabitant was the sole victim to Anglican intolerance." He adds that the persecution did not crush the faith of the humble colonists, but Benedict Calvert, to recover the inheritance of his family property, renounced the Catholic Church for that of England. He did not, however, gain this object during the seventeenth century. His claims were not granted till 1715, after George I. became King.

## LESSON XII.

What scene occurred in the Potomac river, March, 1634? What did all this mean? What do you know of Sir George Calvert? What was the patent granted him by Charles I.? What rights were secured to the emigrants? What privileges and powers had Calvert? Where did the emigrants land? What was the country named? Why were the early days of this colony more free from hardships than other colonies? Did different sects of religion settle here? Why was the first popular assembly convened, and when? How did it prove the reality of its chartered liberty? What was the "bill of rights" framed by the third popular assembly? Did the colony prosper? What change took place when "the commonwealth" was established in England? What caused the Roman Catholics to fly to arms, and what was done? How came the struggle to last so long undecided, and how did it end? On the restoration of the Stuarts, what did the representatives of the people do? and how were matters adjusted? What was the government at the time of the Revolution of 1668? What change occurred then? What was the address to King William? How did his privy council act upon this address? What government was arranged by Sir Lionel

Copley in 1692, and what laws were made? Was the faith of the humble colonists crushed? How did Benedict Calvert act? When were his claims allowed?

#### COLONIZATION OF CONNECTICUT.

On the last days of October, 1635, were to be seen, in the wild woods of Massachusetts, sixty pilgrims, going west—men women, and children. They were going from Massachusetts Bay to the Connecticut river, by virtue of a charter that the younger Winthrop had obtained from the Lords Say and Seal, and Lord Brooke, who were assigns of the Earl of Warwick, to whom “the New England Council” had granted the country five years before. These pilgrims found they had been anticipated, as some fur-traders from Plymouth had already built a trading house at Windsor; and the Dutch from Manhattan, three years before that, had built a trading house at Hartford, which they named THE GOOD HOPE. The English Pilgrims suffered greatly from the lateness of the season; both on their journey and at Wethersfield, where they settled. In the spring, however, another party, of a hundred persons, joined them, having come through the woods in the same way, driving before them large herds of cattle, and travelling at the rate of ten miles a day, through swamps, and streams, and tangled woods, over mountain and valley, camping out every night, and milking their cows. They were conducted by Rev. Thomas Hooker, “the light of the Western Churches,” who made the hills and woods echo with his fervent prayers, morning and evening. Though the fur trade offered reasonable ground for the material interests of the new State, religious enthusiasm was the largest element of the motives that impelled its inception.

The Dutch colonists were of course, inimical to this

ingress of English settlers; but in the end they were so favorably impressed with the political, as well as social characteristics of the Puritan colony, that, when occasion came, they were not unwilling to be amalgamated with it, as has been already seen in the account of New York.

A more formidable enemy than the Dutch, were the Pequod Indians, who were settled round the river Thames. These attempted a confederation with the Narragansetts on one side, and the Mohegans on the other; and commenced hostilities by a murder. Roger Williams was the only man among the Pilgrims who had any great influence over the Indians, and he was persuaded by Sir Harry Vane, who was then governor of Massachusetts, which was threatened by the alliance equally with Connecticut, to try to dissolve this conspiracy. With his accustomed self-sacrificing magnanimity, he shipped himself in a poor canoe, and encountering wind and storm and high seas on his way, he ventured to the wigwam of the sachem of the Narragansetts, where he found the Pequod ambassadors, red with blood and vengeance. For three days and nights he remonstrated and persuaded; and at last succeeded to detach the Narragansetts from the conspiracy. This mission was at the risk of his own life; for if he had not succeeded he would probably have perished.

The Mohegans also became allies of the English of Connecticut; but the Pequods determined to contend single-handed. They had confidence in their rush-wood palisades, and in their numbers, which were ten times those of the Connecticut English, who mustered less than an hundred men.

But the English, conscious of their strength, descended the Connecticut river, and sailed directly up the Thames to the Pequod village, and soon descried the hill where the Indians were encamped. As they landed and marched up, the Indian watch-dog bayed, and the savages were aroused. They fought

desperately; but bows and arrows had no chance against weapons of steel. At length Mason, the English commander, gave orders to cast a fire-brand among the wigwams; and the light mats which formed their walls were instantly in a blaze. As the women and children rushed forth, they were driven back by the English broadswords. In one hour six hundred Indians perished, mostly by fire. The next morning some hundred warriors, who were yet in reserve, unconscious of the disaster, came to reinforce their fortifications. In their astonishment and horror at seeing the bloody ruins, they tore their hair, and rushed upon the English. It was in vain. With small loss of the English, they were all defeated; and Mason returned home in triumph. A few days after, the troops of Massachusetts arrived, led by Wilson, (the same Puritan minister who afterwards presided over the execution of the Quaker martyr, Mary Dyer.) The Connecticut and Massachusetts men pursued the surviving Pequods to their hiding places, burnt every wigwam, and laid waste every corn-field. Sassacus, their chief, fled for protection to the Mohegans, who murdered him, lest they should incur the hostility of the English. About two hundred Pequods, that remained alive, surrendered themselves in despair, and were incorporated among the neighboring tribes, or enslaved by the English. Thus, the Pequod name and race were entirely extinguished.

The lands of the Pequods of course became the property of the colonists; but the lands about Hartford were purchased of the Mohegans by the younger Winthrop, who established a government, which made every man who would swear fidelity to the English commonwealth, an elector, empowered to choose magistrates and the legislature, annually. The constitution said nothing of any jurisdiction by the English monarch. It was virtually an independent government.

But on the Restoration of Charles II. to the throne of Eng-



land, in 1660, the younger Winthrop did the most important service to Connecticut, by going himself to England to solicit a renewal of the charter, assuring to the colonists the lands which had been purchased or conquered in the preceding twenty-five years.

There had, however, another colony come to Connecticut, meanwhile, which was founded in the very year of the Pequod war; and that was New Haven. It was a pilgrim colony, recently from England, under the guidance of Theophilus Eaton, who was elected its governor for twenty years successively. This colony honorably purchased its lands of the Indians. But it gave to church members only, the privileges of freedom; and the Bible was the statute book of the colony. Mr. Eaton had great wealth, for he had been Deputy Governor of the British East India Company, before he came to America; and he reigned nearly like a monarch, but with righteousness and love.

The younger Winthrop is described in his father's "Journal." He was a gifted child; had the best education the British dominions could afford; had travelled all over Europe, where his personal beauty, his spotless morals, his brilliant talents, and his perfect culture combined to make him illustrious; and was so devoted to religion, that, on his return home, finding his father about to embark for America, he preferred to go with him, to all the prospects of preferment at court, that his personal and circumstantial advantages offered. He surpassed his father in largeness and toleration, without being inferior to him in devotion. He pleaded for the Quakers and Baptists, in their day of persecution. His home was blessed by a wife and children, whom he made happy by his lovely character. He found perfect delight himself in science and art, and corresponded with Newton and Boyle, Clarendon and Milton. But he was eminently practical, and commanded

the veneration and confidence of all sects; of the Dutch at New York, not less than of all New England. Bancroft says, "if he had faults, they are all forgotten," while all testimonies unite in pronouncing his eulogy.

So gifted a person, with the advantage of all concurring influences that his worth commanded, did not fail to gain even from Charles II., all he wanted. The patent he obtained united the two colonies of Hartford and New Haven into one, and extended the claims of Connecticut to the Pacific Ocean! It was indeed with some reluctance, that New Haven allowed itself to lose its individuality. The western claim was afterwards sold, and thus gave the means of establishing the school fund of Connecticut. But this was not until after the Revolution, when, by a better knowledge of the geography of the country, it was seen to have been an unconsidered grant.

The charter of Connecticut, obtained by Winthrop, was, as Bancroft says, "the most wonderful of all," for it made the colony independent, except in name. The colonists were to elect their own officers; to enact their own laws; to administer justice without appeals to England; to inflict punishments; to confer pardons;—the King even reserved no negative on the acts of the colony; and, in short, the English government could not interfere in any case whatever!

The effect of this government was an unexampled prosperity, for more than a century. Its days were "halcyon days of peace." Bancroft's description of it seems to realize more than the fancied Utopia promised. One does not wonder, as one reads of it, that the neighbouring colony of the Dutch, wished to transform itself into an English colony, and met so frankly the proposition to surrender all the country to the Duke of York, on security being promised to the customs, municipal institutions, and personal possessions of the Dutch.

Winthrop was elected Governor of Connecticut fourteen successive years.

The first cloud which lowered upon Connecticut, was when the fleet of Sir Edmund Andros, which, in obedience to Charles II.'s plan of consolidating the colonies, proceeded from New York to Connecticut. The assembly was convened on this occasion, by the Deputy Governor Leet, who sent at once for the military company, which was the defence of the colony. It arrived just as Andros landed, and was reading his commission. The Colonial officers interrupted the reading with a command to "desist, in the King's name." Sir Edmund was appalled at the spirit manifested; and "the Saybrook militia conducted him to his boats;" for he dared not proceed to violence.

In the thirteen years that followed, every representation was made in England of the Connecticut Puritans which could turn them into ridicule. Then arose the slander respecting the Blue Laws, with others of a like kind. At the end of that time, Sir Edmund went to Connecticut again, clothed in new power by James II. Finding the Assembly in session, he demanded their charter. But he was now baffled another way. The Governor, to gain time, entered into an elaborate discussion, which he spun out until evening, when, on a sudden, the lights were extinguished by Mr. Bull, who threw over them a blanket; and William Wadsworth snatched the precious instrument, which was lying on the table. The assembly silently opened for him a passage, and he left the hall, and deposited it in the oak, which is still pointed out with pride in Hartford, consecrated by a holier trust than the English oak which saved the fugitive Stuart in his hour of peril. The government was, for the time being, nevertheless surrendered to Andros, who, taking the Colonial Records of freedom, wrote on them the word FINIS. But soon afterward, when the accession of Wil-

liam and Mary spread revolution like lightning through the American colonies, the Assembly of Connecticut convened, repudiated the government of Andros, and erased his *Finis* from their records; to which they have ever since continued to add chapters of the history of freedom.

### LESSON XIII.—CONNECTICUT.

What was the scene in the wild woods of Massachusetts, in the last days of October, 1635? What did this mean? Had these pilgrims been anticipated by any other settlers? How did they enjoy the winter? How were they reinforced in the spring of 1636? What was the cause of the formation of this new State? How did the Dutch colonies like this ingress of the English? What did the Pequod Indians do about it? How was the conspiracy dissolved? What induced the Pequods to persevere? Describe the expedition of Mason against them? What did the Connecticut and Massachusetts men do further in this war? What became of the surviving Pequods? In what year was this war? What became of the lands of the Pequods? What lands did the younger Winthrop buy? For what purpose? What was the government? How came they to get a charter when Charles II. came upon the throne? What do you remember about the younger Winthrop's personal history? What were the provisions of the charter that he obtained? Was New Haven willing to lose its individuality? Of what use was the western claim afterwards? What rights had the colony under the charter? How did the colony flourish? How many times was Winthrop elected governor? What was done when Sir Edmund Andros undertook to consolidate Connecticut with the rest of New England, in 1674? What occurred on his next attempt in 1687? What revulsion took place on the accession of William and Mary?



## COLONIZATION OF RHODE ISLAND.

Rhode Island owes its settlement and remarkable constitution to the banishment of Roger Williams from the Colony of Massachusetts. This event took place in 1635, and in the Spring of 1636, (after having passed the winter among the Indians, whom he had made his friends by personal benevolence, having exerted himself more than any one else, to teach them Christianity, and the arts and comforts of civilization), he purchased the plantation of Providence. But it was not merely by personal kindness that he benefited the Indians. He defended their right to citizenship and all the privileges of freedom, notwithstanding they were not members of the Church, but even heathens. Indeed, this was a large part of his offence in the eyes of the Puritans of Massachusetts !

Roger Williams was of Welsh descent. He was an Oxford scholar ; first studied civil law under Sir Edward Coke, and, afterwards, became a fervent Puritan preacher. This combination of various educational influences was probably beneficial. At all events he seems to have been the most clear headed of the Puritans, and his so called heresies were rigid deductions from the common creed. He discriminated men as members of the natural community into which all men were born, and as members of the Christian Church, into which only some men were elected. As members of the natural community, they all had equal duties and rights, and on these was civil government to be founded. The civil government extended over all the moral activity, and could enforce justice in the relations of men to each other, but could not extend itself over the relations of men to the God of Grace. He maintained that as members of a visible Church, men became subject to another law ; which could be enforced only within

the church precincts, into which any man freely came, who could approve himself to the others as elected by grace; but that he was as free to leave it, if he doubted it to be a true church for him, as it was free to excommunicate him, if his evidence failed to be satisfactory to them. Within this church sphere, as well as between man and his maker, the civil magistrate had no right to come. A man's religious opinions and faith were sacred from all interference of the civil government. But the civil government was bound to protect every man in his religious freedom, even if he found himself to be in a church of only one member,—as Roger Williams himself did, at last.

The immediate cause of his banishment from Massachusetts was his assertion for the church in Salem, over which he was Pastor, of immunity from the dictation in matters of faith and church practice, of the Government of Massachusetts. He presumed to assemble persons to pray, and be addressed by each other, in private houses. The Puritans in general believed that, if religious matters were left so entirely to the private judgment of Christians, the English Church would creep in and rob them of their freedom to be Puritans. They had not faith enough in their churches to believe that the Holy Ghost would make them so strong that death and hell could not prevail against them. But Roger Williams trusted his to be the Ark of the Lord, needing no Uzziah hands of support upon it. He created the Baptist form of church government and policy, which he believed to be the original plan of the Christian Churches, instituting adult or rather believer's baptism, and even independence of each church on the other, in the Lord's Supper, except by special agreement. This close communion as it is called, seems to many persons a *non sequitur* from his liberal principles. But he did not consider the Lord's Supper as other sectaries do,

to be symbolical of Christian communion, which he conceived to be identical with nothing less than a life of charity. He considered both of the christian *rites* as symbolical of the christian *doctrines* which each visible church was constituted to preserve in the world, and on which alone, could a church, as such, commune. He might have been mistaken in this view of the rites, but it is fair to understand him as he meant, and not in a sense which he repudiated.

Mr. Bancroft has done beautiful justice to Roger Williams' character in his ninth chapter, which the student should consult. He draws a parallel between him and Lord Baltimore, who had, two years before, established his colony on the Potomac, on a platform of general toleration. Lord Baltimore had been taught toleration by his experience in England, as one of a proscribed and persecuted sect, and, what is important to observe, could have obtained his patent only on the condition of tolerating Protestants. But Roger Williams had found toleration as a principle of reason and Christianity, and suffered persecution from his religious friends, in order to defend his right to *bestow*, not enjoy it merely. He believed in "soul-liberty," and that all religious profession was entirely vitiated that was enforced from without. Consequently he did not impose even the Christian religion, as a necessary qualification for civil privileges. But even in the very act of the second Lord Baltimore (engrossed by him on parchment, and passed by the Maryland Assembly of 1649), which says that no person professing to believe in Jesus Christ shall be molested on account of religion, it is previously stipulated that one who denies the doctrine of the Trinity shall suffer death; and fine, whipping and banishment are denounced for reproachful speeches against the Virgin Mary.

Roger Williams bought the plantation of Providence of the chief of the Narragansetts, and established the first civil com-

munity history has mentioned, in which the right of the people to rule themselves was recognized as an original principle. There were not even any magistrates at first, but the will of the people in convention, decided every thing in civil affairs.

The religious troubles of Massachusetts, arising from the "liberty of prophesying," assumed by Anne Hutchinson and others, contributed to people Providence, which was an open asylum for all who wished freedom to follow conscience. Roger Williams and Sir Harry Vane, who, though Governor of Massachusetts, sympathized with him in his principles of toleration, induced the chief of the Narragansetts to grant the beautiful Rhode Island to William Coddington and John Clarke, who had been banished in 1639 from Massachusetts, on the charge of Antinomianism. The civil government they established was founded also on the basis of the universal consent of all the individuals to be governed, but the forms of the administration were "borrowed," says Bancroft, "from the republic of ancient Israel."

In 1644, Roger Williams went to England to obtain a charter from "the Commonwealth;" and, by the aid of his friend, Sir Harry Vane, who had returned to England, as well as his own transcendent merit, he succeeded. Then Rhode Island was incorporated together with Providence, with full powers of self-government.

The early history of Rhode Island is a peculiar study. It was filled with every variety of sectary; and with infidels also. Perfect liberty of debate was even encouraged by Roger Williams; and of course the town meetings, as well as church meetings, were stormy. But, Bancroft says, good magistrates were uniformly elected; good counsels always prevailed. It is true, there was a temporary difficulty produced by the English Executive Council granting to William Coddington a commission to govern the island, which com-



pelled Williams to go to England, with John Clarke as colleague, to adjust the matter. By their exertions the dangerous commission was vacated, and the integrity of the little State secured. The General Assembly, in its gratitude to Williams, on this occasion, asked him to obtain from the sovereign authority an appointment as governor for himself. But he was more pure from ambition than to make such a dangerous precedent. At this crisis, Sir Harry Vane had been a "sheet anchor to Rhode Island;" and the people recorded their gratitude to him in an address, from which Bancroft makes an extract, expressing that they had attained "as great liberties as any people under the whole heaven."

When Charles II. came upon the throne of England, John Clarke was in England, as agent of the colony, and presented its petitions for confirmation of its charter. He was successful. The supreme power was committed to a governor, deputy governor, and ten assistants, chosen by the people. Religious freedom was insured to every human being who might come within the boundaries of the colony. The people were to be governed by the laws of England, *modified to their necessities by themselves*. No oath of allegiance was exacted. Bancroft supposes that this liberal charter, as well as that of Connecticut, obtained by the younger Winthrop, may have been granted, in order to make these colonies balance "the proud and rebellious Massachusetts." It was still in existence in 1844, the oldest constitutional charter then valid in the world.

Andros, soon after his arrival as Governor of New England, demanded the charter of Rhode Island. As Walter Clarke, who was then the governor, did not immediately obey, Andros repaired to Rhode Island in person, dissolved its government, and broke its seal. Then he appointed five citizens to be his council; and arbitrarily substituted for the old government a commission, irresponsible to the people. The people were

quiet, and, it was supposed, submissive; so that it was said they did not desire the restoration of the charter! But, on May-day of 1689, when the news of William and Mary's invasion arrived, the "democrasie" of Rhode Island poured into Newport, saying, "We take it to be our duty to lay hold of our former gracious privileges, in our charter contained." An old Quaker, Henry Bull by name, was elected governor, and employed the last glimmering of life, says Bancroft, in restoring the action of the democratic charter of Rhode Island. It is a curious circumstance, that when the laws of Rhode Island were written out, under the influence of King William's government, the Roman Catholics were excepted from religious freedom. This was not an act of the people of Rhode Island, however, but of King William's government, and was repealed by the legislature of Rhode Island, on the first occasion of its being tested, by the presence of the French fleet in the harbor of Newport, in 1779.

N. B.—Rhode Island, though the smallest in territory of all the States of the Union, is in some respects the greatest of all, as has been eloquently set forth by Judge Durfee in a discourse before the Historical Society of that State, Jan. 13, 1847. And the principles of government it has historically illustrated, have been defended in a very able manner by Rowland G. Hazard, in a discourse upon Judge Durfee, and his writings, delivered before the same body the next year, Jan. 18th, 1848.

Both these discourses are earnestly recommended to students of the constitutional history of the United States. The last presents important views on the question of the emoluments of the officers of republican government, looking to the end of keeping them incorruptible. Franklin expressed a similar opinion in the Federal Convention, according to the Madison papers.

## LESSON XIV.

To what does Rhode Island owe its settlement and remarkable constitution? When was this banishment? What were Roger Williams' opinions about the Indians' rights? What was his history? What were his opinions about Church and State? What was the immediate cause of his banishment? What was the point of difference between him and the Puritans? What form of church government did he create? What were the differences between him and Lord Baltimore, as founders of a State, and in the States founded? How was his State peopled? What was the origin of the separate government of the Islands? When and how were Providence and Rhode Island incorporated into one? What change took place when Charles II. came upon the throne? Why did he not get Charles to appoint him governor? What change did Andros make afterwards? What proved that the people did not like this change? Who restored the operation of the charter? What do you remember about a law against the Roman Catholics?

## THE CAROLINAS.—1663—1670.

The Carolinas were so named from the kings Charles of England. Charles I. had granted the whole territory to one of his friends; but it was not taken possession of in his lifetime; and after the Restoration, Charles II. made a new grant to a company of his friends, among whom were Lord Clarendon, General Monk, the Earl of Shaftsbury, the Berkeleys, and others. The royal charter, however, as in the case of Lord Baltimore, reserved to the free emigrants a right of assembly for legislation; and religious liberty.

For, already, in 1663, a permanent settlement had been made on the Chowan river. Some Quakers, who were driven from Virginia by the laws made by the long-sitting assembly\* against dissenters, had fled thither to enjoy immunity from them, but subsequently received from Berkeley a governor. This colony was enlarged by the accession of some fugitives from the intolerance of New England, who had made an attempt to colonize on Cape Fear river. In all, there were above eight hundred souls, who founded the State of North Carolina.

A most extraordinary constitution of government was planned for these provinces, at the instance of the proprietors, by the celebrated philosopher, John Locke. It instituted orders of nobility, with land-rights and titles. General Monk was to be Palatine, and named Duke of Albemarle, &c. Bancroft, who, in his thirteenth chapter, gives a minute account of the details of "the Grand Model," as it was called, shows that its introduction was rendered impossible, by reason of the Quaker influence, which was great there. The influence of the early Quakers was democratic, because their doctrine placed every man in independent relation to God, and taught him to rely for direction on "the light within." When this doctrine was a living principle, instead of the creed of an organization to be conserved, it expressed itself on the political plane actively, as well as passively. Bancroft says, that to read the early history of North Carolina would convince any mind of man's capacity for self-government. The proprietaries were forced to make a compromise with these people, and after ten years' struggle they consented to receive the Governor Sothel; but they deposed him soon after he arrived. And yet Bancroft says these "freest of the free" were "gentle in their tempers,"

\* Look back to page 45 *seq.*



“of serene minds, enemies to violence and bloodshed.” “True, there was no fixed minister in the land till 1703; no church erected till 1705; no separate building for a court-house till 1722; no printing press till 1754;” but “the spirit of humanity maintained its influence \* \* \* in the paradise of the Quakers.”

South Carolina was settled in the year 1670, the same year that “the Grand Model” was signed. The emigrants first touched at the place, where, in the century before, the unfortunate Huguenot colony, conducted by John Ribault first “engraved the lilies of France, and erected the fortress of Carolana;” but leaving this place they concluded to land on the Ashley river, and there they built a town, of which no vestige now remains. They established a simple republican government; for it was “impossible to execute the Grand Model. “As easily” says Bancroft, “might trees have been turned into cathedrals at a word; or castles erected in those solitary groves on the Savannahs.” “Representative government was established and continued to be cherished.” It was, however, a good while before the proprietaries gave up their hopes of introducing their preposterous constitution; and, meanwhile, they sent out supplies to the colony, and saved it from many of the hardships the other colonies had encountered. Emigration was favored, Charleston began to be built, and slaves were immediately imported; so that, in a few years, there were twice as many negroes as white men.

Hitherto every colony to America, except the Swedish, which made an express provision against it, had received slaves. But they were used for domestic service wholly; or, as in Virginia, they worked on the farms and plantations of tobacco, together with white slaves. The Dutch were the first who supplied the colonies; but now the English were partaking the trade, and the Duke of York was president of

the African Company. No climate which had yet been settled north of Florida, was so unfavorable to the health of white laborers as South Carolina, or so congenial to that of the African. Yet the African company forced them beyond the demand, and there is record of a complaint made by the South Carolina assembly, in the early part of the reign of William and Mary, of "the ruinous importation of negroes." The revolutionary government of England more than supplied to the African Company the patronage of their royal president: as is evident from Mr. Bancroft's chapter on the subject.

The sources of the settlement of South Carolina were in the revolutions and distresses of other countries. Dutch from New York and even from Holland; impoverished cavaliers from England;—later, in James II.'s time, persecuted protestants; a Scotch emigration also; and, after James II. was driven from England, a company of Irish contributed to swell the immigration. The revocation of the edict of Nantz by Louis XIV., in 1697, drove French Huguenots to all countries where protestants could find favor; and large colonies of them went to South Carolina. Bancroft gives quite an interesting account of the perils the Huguenots encountered in becoming exiles, which a law of France forbade; but the narrative he gives of the persecutions endured at home, accounts for any degree of heroism. They were more frightful than even the contemporary persecutions by James II. in England.\*

These Huguenots have given some of the highest characteristics to the people of South Carolina, for they were cultivated by literature and science.

\* Mrs. George Lee's History of the Huguenots, published in Boston in 1842, is a book easily understood by young people, which gives a graphic account of Huguenot Martyrdom. But Sismondi's History of France enters into every detail of the continental persecution of Protestants at this time, including an account of the Bloody Baths in Eperies, Hungary.

The political history of South Carolina consisted mainly in struggles between the assembly of the Province and the proprietaries, until their charter was declared to be forfeited in the early part of the eighteenth century. Bancroft, in his chapter XXII., gives an account of this political war ; and also of the Indian difficulties, during which the Yamasees were driven into Florida, and the Tuscarooras emigrated to the north, and joined the Five Nations. The change of South Carolina from the government of the proprietaries, to that of the king of England, did not end the difficulties. The Grand Model had been formally given up long before ; but William and Mary's government had established the Church of England in South Carolina, and, what is remarkable, attempted to force it upon North Carolina, which caused a continual turbulence there.

Nevertheless, population and prosperity continued and increased ; being promoted in South Carolina by the cultivation of rice, which was introduced from Madagascar in 1691.

## LESSON XV.

Why were the Carolinas so named ? By whom, and to whom, were they successively granted ? What privileges were reserved to the emigrants ? What was the first colony and its early history ? How was it augmented to 800 souls ? What was John Locke's Grand Model constitution ? Why was its introduction impossible ? What was the end of the struggle ? What does Bancroft say of these people ?

What settlement was made in 1670 ? What government did they establish ? Why ? How did the proprietaries' unwillingness to give up their hope of introducing the Grand Model incidentally benefit the colony ? Were slaves immediately introduced ? What had been the history of slavery in

the several colonies? From what sources was South Carolina peopled? What was the cause of the Huguenot colony? and the character of it? What was the political history of South Carolina? When was their charter declared forfeited? What change took place in the Indian population of South Carolina at the same time? What changes had taken place before, through the influence of William and Mary's government? How was prosperity promoted in South Carolina?

#### NEW JERSEY.—1655.

The Duke of York, immediately after taking possession of New Netherlands, granted to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret the territory now called New Jersey, in separate portions to each, which were called East and West Jersey. Some Dutch—not Danes, as has been asserted—had already settled at Bergen, and some Quakers had found refuge there from persecution; also, some New England Puritans had settled on the Raritan river, in 1663. The Proprietaries constituted a government of a liberal character, in order to encourage emigration; for they promised freedom of conscience and worship, and a representative Assembly who should lay the taxes; and only reserved to themselves a veto on it, and a right to appoint the judiciary. The object was to encourage settlers. In consequence of this, a colony from Connecticut went to Newark, which was a combination into one of three churches that attempted to organize a Church which, like Theophilus Eaton's colony in New Haven, was to be identical with the State, in this instance merely a municipality. This emigration from Connecticut was occasioned by the adoption of the liberal charter obtained from Charles II. by the younger Winthrop. Its history can be found in Stearns's Ecclesiastical History of Newark.



Sir George Carteret made his brother Philip his deputy, who came out and built a house, in 1665, at Elizabethtown, which was named in honor of his wife.

Berkeley sold out West Jersey, in 1674, to some Quakers, who commenced their settlement of it at Salem. They constituted a government for themselves, in which the whole power was vested in the people. In less than ten years after, William Penn bought, in behalf of twelve of these Quakers, all East Jersey from Philip Carteret; and though the Quakers did not spread into it, the extinction of the proprietary claim was favorable to the popular development of the government. Bancroft gives a captivating description, in his fifteenth chapter, of this "virtuous, prosperous, and happy community." But he tells us that though the proprietaries had been obliged to establish popular institutions, in order to people the country, yet, in subservience to the Duke of York, their patron, who was President of the African Company, they offered "a bounty of seventy-five acres of land for the importation of every able slave."

When the Duke of York became King James II., his cruelties in Scotland drove the Scotch Presbyterians, by tens of thousands, from their homes; and they came to New Jersey in such numbers as to give a character to it, "which," as Bancroft says, in his Chapter XVII., "a century and a half has not effaced." In 1683, Gawen Laurie wrote that, in all the colony, "there is not a poor body, nor one that wants." Robert Barclay was then Governor of New Jersey, and the Scotch Calvinists had established free schools.

But New Jersey fell under the consolidated government of Andros, in 1684; was subjected to the "Lords of Trade," in the time of William and Mary; and, under Queen Anne, was governed, together with New York, by Lord Cornbury, who gave new impulse to slavery, and greatly restricted the reli-

gious as well as civil freedom of all classes. Those who are old enough to study these political changes, can find them stated in Bancroft, Chapter XIX. Freedom, however, had been planted before the attempts at oppression came; and, in its struggle to maintain itself, New Jersey was educated for the Revolution.

## LESSON XVI.

Who were the first proprietaries of New Jersey? Who were the first settlers, and where and when? What government did the proprietaries institute? What do you remember about the colony of Newark? Who was the first governor, and where did he settle? Who settled West Jersey, and where? When and how was East Jersey added to it? What account does Bancroft give of the colony? Why were these privileges given by the proprietaries? How was slavery introduced? What is said about the Scotch colony, and where did it settle? What disastrous change took place in 1684? Who governed N. J. in William and Mary's time? What was its condition in Queen Anne's time? Where can students learn those political events which educated New Jersey for the struggles of the Revolution?

## PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE.

Pennsylvania takes its name from William Penn, son of a certain Admiral Penn, to whom James II. was very friendly. William had become a convert to Quakerism, and, although highly educated, elegant in person, and having the *prestige* of rank, he was subject to great persecutions in England for his faith. This circumstance, together with a noble and generous plan, of making an experiment of a government which should

repudiate violence and force, even in the political and civil order, induced him to propose that the government of England should pay a debt of £16,000, which it owed to his father, by granting him a patent for land in America, with privilege of colonization. It was quite a cheap way for the government to pay its debts; and he was permitted to purchase of the Indians, a tract of land west of the Delaware river, between Maryland and New York, making a parallelogram of nearly six degrees of longitude, by nearly three degrees of latitude. Of this land, William Penn was made proprietary, it being the passion of the Stuarts to divide America into great proprietary estates; none of which, however, flourished, except Maryland under Lord Baltimore, and Pennsylvania under William Penn; and not even these were permanent; neither of them lasted as such for a century. But, because these proprietaries had disinterested views, and planted their colonies not mainly with reference to personal aggrandizement, the moral influence of Lord Baltimore, and especially of William Penn, was not transient like that of Gorges, Mason, Lords Say and Seal, the Berkeleys, Carteret, and others. In the grant to William Penn, it was stipulated that the sovereignty of the King, and the commercial supremacy of Parliament, should be reserved; and that there should be a provincial assembly, to have a voice on the question of taxation. Otherwise, William Penn was made absolute proprietor and governor of Pennsylvania.

Penn's grant for Pennsylvania was from Charles II. He received, afterwards, from the Duke of York, the southern part of New Netherlands, which was a part of the peninsula between Delaware and Chesapeake bays. This had been colonized as early as 1630, by the Dutch De Vries, an account of whose voyage, written by himself, is to be found in Hakluyt's Collection. The colony of De Vries was entirely destroyed

by the Indians. Afterwards Delaware was bought by the city of Amsterdam; but such was the spirit of commercial monopoly, in which its affairs were conducted, that nearly every emigrant was driven to the freer English colonies, though an attempt at removal was punishable with death! In 1638, the Swedish colony was established, which had been conquered by Stuyvesant in 1655.

Penn had but one temptation to assume absolute power—his benevolence! But he resisted that, and framed a government “free to the people; where the laws rule, and the people are a party to the laws.” He immediately wrote to the settlers on the Delaware, and promised them laws of their own making. He also caused letters to be read to the Indians, in which he recognized them as under the same law of God as himself, whereby both parties were bound to befriend each other.

A company of emigrants brought these letters to America, together with the plan of the city of Philadelphia, which was to be laid out in squares of an eighth of a mile, in order to afford room for every house built on the streets to have an ample garden; and thus to make the city “a green country town.” Had his plan been faithfully adhered to, Philadelphia would hardly have had its equal in the world, whether for beauty or health. The government Penn framed for his colony was a wonderful one. The legislative council was to be chosen every three years; a general assembly every year. The Governor and Council were to propose the laws; the people decide on them at their primary meetings, and the assembly to report their decision. Finally, the people were to nominate the Governor’s council. Thus every officer of the government (except the governor himself; who was to be William Penn or his heir), was to be elected by the people. Except for the Governor’s veto, he had no prerogative, and it was a virtual



democracy. Finally Penn refused a revenue from export duties, and tax-gatherers were unknown in Pennsylvania. Here we may draw a comparison with the government of Lord Baltimore, who received the whole revenue derived from the export of tobacco, and who appointed every magistrate and executive officer in Maryland, while Penn did not appoint one officer.

The people received the announcement of this constitution with surprise and gratitude. Never was a government established, giving such freedom to the people to alter it; but it remains essentially the same to this day.

A free society of traders was also organized, in which every one might be concerned who would, but have the liberty of private traffic also.

Penn landed at Newcastle in 1682; and near the court-house, in the open air, the Duke of York's agent delivered to him earth and water, and Penn addressed the people, pledging himself to respect their rights and freedom. He then went up to Chester, and was hospitably received by the farmers and herdsmen there. Proceeding still further up the river, whose beautiful banks were fringed with pine trees, he surveyed the spot where Philadelphia was to be built. He subsequently visited the Jerseys, New York, and the Friends or Long Island. But the most memorable scene was at Shakamaxen, where, on the northern edge of Philadelphia, under a large elm tree, he met the delegation of the Lenni-Lenape. "I will not call you children," said he, "for parents sometimes chide children too severely; nor brothers only, for brothers differ. The friendship between me and you I will not compare to a chain; for that the rains might rust, or the falling tree might break. We are the same as if one man's body were divided into two parts; we are all one flesh and blood."

The children of the forest received his presents and gave

him their belts of wampum, replying; "we will live in love with William Penn and his children, as long as the moon and sun shall endure." Both parties were faithful to this treaty, which was confirmed by no oaths, ratified by no signatures or seals, written no where but on the heart. And it was never violated, for the Indians who came down on the back settlements in the old French War, had no relations with the Lenni Lenape. It was once said that five hundred Delawares, were assembled to concert a massacre. Caleb Pusey and five other friends went to them unarmed and said; "The Great God who made all mankind extends his love to Indians and English. The rain and the dews fall alike on the ground of both; the sun shines on us equally, and we ought to love one another." The griefs of the tribes were then inquired into and comforted. The king of the Delawares, whether guilty or not, expressed indignation at the accusation of planning a massacre. He replied "What you say is true. Go home and harvest the corn God has given you. We intend you no harm."

News immediately spread through Europe, that William Penn had opened an asylum to the good and oppressed of every nation; and emigrants—not only from the British Islands and the Low countries, but from Germany, which had hardly yet breathed from the Thirty years War, crowded upon the banks of the Schuylkill. They remembered the eloquence of "the Quaker king," when he had travelled in Holland and Germany, just after his imprisonment in England, for his faith in the inner guide. "There is nothing in the history of the human race," says Bancroft, "like the confidence which the simple virtues and institutions of William Penn inspired. The progress of his province was more rapid than the progress of New England. \* \* \* In three years from its foundation, Philadelphia gained more than New York had done in half a century."

But William Penn did not remain in America at that time, more than two years. He returned to England, where he endeavored to mitigate the horrors of religious persecution, not without some immediate effect. His friend James Logan continued in Pennsylvania to watch over his interests, but the assembly of the province never repaid by their appropriations the outlay that Penn made upon the colony. His noble sacrifices were accepted by Divine providence and repaid in another kind than base coin. There is one circumstance which occurred during his short stay, which ought to be mentioned, because it shows the actual advance of his own practical mind beyond the prejudices of his age. A *witch* was cited before his tribunal. The case was as clearly proved as any one, but she was dismissed, on bonds being given by her friends, that she should "keep the peace." This was 20 years before the witchcraft murders of Massachusetts. And, what is still more noteworthy, there were 130,000 cases of capital punishment for witchcraft executed afterward in Europe !

In 1691, finding that the lower counties were jealous of the superior influence of the upper ones, William Penn constituted the commonwealth of Delaware into a separate self-government under his deputy, Markham; and this therefore is the date of its individuality. Bancroft in his Chapter XIX, gives the details of all the political difficulties, and an account of the appointment of a Royal Commissioner by William and Mary's government, who had arbitrarily united the two grants, and with whom there was much struggle for popular privileges. When William Penn came again to America, in 1699, he confirmed all freedoms that had been gained. He had been hindered from going to America by William and Mary's government, from which he had endured

much persecution. His provinces had involved him in expenses, rather than given him income ; and Bancroft says, his poverty created in him a willingness to surrender them to the crown, but to have given up his proprietary rights would have put the people wholly at the mercy of an arbitrary government. "He insisted on preserving the colonial liberties, and the crown hardly cared to buy a democracy. If the violent conflicts of the Assemblies, in their eagerness to engross all authority, and gain control over the questions of property between the province and its proprietary, seemed sometimes to compel the surrender of his powers of government, yet the bare apprehension of *such a result* always brought the colonists to a gentler temper."\*

But the government had some incompatible elements. It was a democracy and a feudal sovereignty at once, and the political history of Pennsylvania became an ineffectual attempt to harmonize the discordant elements. As a social principle Quakerism worked wonders. It is said that there are yet remaining townships, where this influence is in the ascendancy, that for successive years have had no magistracy, because there has been no occasion for a justice of peace to take out his commission ; where, within the memory of man, there have been no cases of assault and battery ; townships without constables, or lawyers, or clergymen, settling their own disputes by mutual, peaceful arbitration. May not this be the natural result of Penn's great idea, that man's first endeavors should be to govern himself by Divine Law revealed to him ; and of his constant appeals to the better elements of human nature ? He omitted from the criminal code of his province an hundred and fifty crimes which were made capital offences

\* For much interesting detail of the early history of Delaware, see "Reminiscences of Wilmington," by Miss Montgomery.



in England.\* But wars came on with the Indians, who had had no immediate relation with William Penn, and who were set on by the French on the Ohio, in the period of the old French war. The Quakers had no measures to propose which could meet the case, and in their spirit of non-resistance, retired from office. This was at the time that Franklin was made commander of the military force against the Indians. The Revolutionary war presented another problem which baffled their councils. They could do nothing but retire from the government, which now shows little trace of their influence.

Bancroft, in his chapter XVI., has given a beautiful memoir of William Penn; and he says in conclusion, "Thus did Penn perfect his government: an executive, dependent for its support on the people; all subordinate executive officers elected by the people; the judiciary dependent for its existence on the people; no forts, no armed police, no militia, perfect freedom of opinion; no established church; and a harbor opened for the reception of all mankind."

Penn's rights were purchased by Pennsylvania, when it became free, with the rest of the United States, at the Revolution. And Great Britain allowed his family a pension in lieu of sustaining their chartered rights.

## LESSON XVII.

Who gave name to Pennsylvania, and who was he? What was his history? Out of what circumstance grew his grant of a province? What was the grant? What reservations of power were made in the grant? From whom were the grants of Pennsylvania and of Delaware severally received? What was the grant of the Duke of York? When and by whom

\* They had no capital crime but murder. They had to struggle with the royal commissioner to keep up this mild code.

was Delaware colonized? What became of De Vries' colony? What was the history of the colony instituted by the city of Amsterdam afterward? What happened in 1638 and 1655? What was the principle of the government Penn instituted? What letters did the first company of his emigrants bring to the settlers, and to the Indians? What was his plan of Philadelphia? How was the legislature to be chosen? How, the Governor's council? What prerogatives had Penn as governor? What difference was there between his and Lord Baltimore's prerogatives? How did the people receive this constitution, and how have they acted with reference to it? Where did Penn land in 1682? and what ceremony took place? Where did he go next? What was the scene at Shakamaxon? Did the Lenni Lenape ever violate the treaty? How did Caleb Pusey and a few friends act, on occasion of a rumor of an intended massacre, at one time? Why and whence did emigrants come? What does Bancroft say of the progress of the colony? How long did Penn stay in America at first? What did he do in England on his return? Who stayed to watch over his interests? Did the assembly of the Province ever repay Penn for his outlay? What judicial sentence of his, marks his superiority to his age in general? Why and when was Delaware separated from Pennsylvania? What changes had occurred under William and Mary's government? When did Penn go to America again, and why not sooner? Why did he wish to surrender his provinces, and why did he not do it? Did the people wish him to surrender his rights? What incompatible elements had the government? What was the effect of Quakerism as a social principle? What was the difference of the penal code of England and Pennsylvania? How came the Quakers to retire from the helm of government? Who was the commander against the Indians in the Old French war? When

did they finally lose their influence in the government? How does Bancroft describe Penn's government?

### FRENCH SETTLEMENTS AND WARS.

In the beginning of the seventeenth century, the religious wars of France being closed by the Edict of Nantz, which, though it granted toleration to Protestants, left France a decidedly Catholic power; the enthusiasm of discovery awoke again with the peace, and Champlain undertook the settlement of Canada. De Monts, under his patronage, founded Portroyal, in Acadia, in 1605—the first permanent settlement; and he himself founded Quebec in 1608. Mr. Bancroft, in his twentieth chapter, shows that religious zeal had as much to do with the French settlements in Canada as with the English settlements in New England. He gives an interesting account of the martyr sacrifices made by the good Jesuits to baptize the Indians; which rite they believed would save their souls. They went wherever the fur-traders ventured, and contributed largely to their success. For they had great success in converting the poor natives. They traversed the whole region of the great lakes, and Father Marquette, in company with the fur-trader, Joliet, discovered the Mississippi, near its source, ten years before La Salle sailed down that great river to the gulf of Mexico, in 1682.

It was, in the beginning of the century, the plan of Champlain, to attach to the French the tribes of Indians on the St. Lawrence; and, in order to do this, he very soon undertook to espouse their quarrel with “the Five Nations,” who were a powerful confederacy in the interior of New York, called by the French the Iroquois. He therefore joined the Hurons and Algonquins in an expedition, in which he first displayed to the astonished natives the power of European fire-arms. Of

course, he conquered them in the first battle; but he did not succeed in making them sue for peace; on the contrary, he excited an hostility against the French which never slept, and which ultimately gave to the Dutch and English their formidable alliance. Only individuals of the Iroquois were ever converted to Catholicism; but these individuals were extraordinary trophies of the power of the Jesuits to inspire the spirit of martyrdom. Kip's account of the early Jesuit missions, in Wiley & Putnam's Library of American Books, gives most touching details of the Iroquois saints and martyrs.

Motives, therefore, derived both from the interests of trade and religion, kept up a continual hostility between the English and French settlers. In 1613, Argall, the same Virginia captain who had stolen Pocahontas from her father, made an expedition against Portroyal, and pillaged it, to express the English idea that the French had no right to settle on the coast of North America. In 1629, a war between England and France led to an attempt to conquer Quebec, which Champlain was obliged to surrender. But the peace of 1629 restored to France not only this place, but Portroyal also; and in 1630 Montreal was founded, quite as much by the Jesuits as by the fur traders, though it became a metropolis for both. In 1686 they built Fort Niagara.

When the war between the French and English broke out in the last years of the century, the burning of Schenectady may show the character of the war in America. Louis XIV. had directed the conquest of New York, and his general began by an attempt to gain the Iroquois, which failed. A party of Canadian Indians, with some of the emigrant Christian Iroquois, was led from Montreal by the French, and waded through snows for twenty-two days, arriving at Schenectady when the whole village was asleep. The war whoop was raised, the houses set on fire, and sixty of the inhabitants were



massacred by the Indians, while the rest of them fled through a cold snow storm, half-dressed, to Albany, most of them ruined in constitution and crippled for life. Similar scenes took place in New Hampshire and Maine, at York, Oyster Bay, and Haverhill. Bancroft, in his chapter twenty-second, tells all the particulars. "Once," he says, "a mother achieved a startling revenge. Hannah Dustin, of Haverhill, with her nurse and a boy, were carried off to an island in the Merrimac. The boy said one day to his Indian master, 'Where would you strike to kill instantly?' The Indian told him where, and how to scalp. At night, while the Indians were asleep, the two women and boy so bettered the lesson, that they killed ten sleepers, and wounded one, (a squaw,) and Hannah Dustin escaped to Haverhill, with a bag full of scalps, together with the gun and tomahawk which had murdered her husband and child when she was taken prisoner." The peace of Ryswick closed this war in 1697. But the French colonization spirit was not quenched. D'Iberville, who had been one of the leaders of the massacre of Schenectady, founded Biloxi, on the Mississippi, in 1699.

### LESSON XVIII.

When and why did Champlain undertake the settlement of Canada? What and when were the first permanent settlements made? What does Mr. Bancroft prove with respect to the motives of these settlements? Who discovered the Mississippi sources? Who first sailed down that river and when? What was Champlain's plan? What did he do in consequence? With what success and failure? What is said about the Iroquois converts? What were the first hostilities of the English, and why? What changes came by the peace of 1629? Who founded Montreal and when? When did they

build Fort Niagara? What was the cause of the war in the last part of the century? What do you remember of the massacre of Schenectady? Where else were such scenes enacted? What story is told of Hannah Dustin? What closed the war? What other colony did the French found in the century.

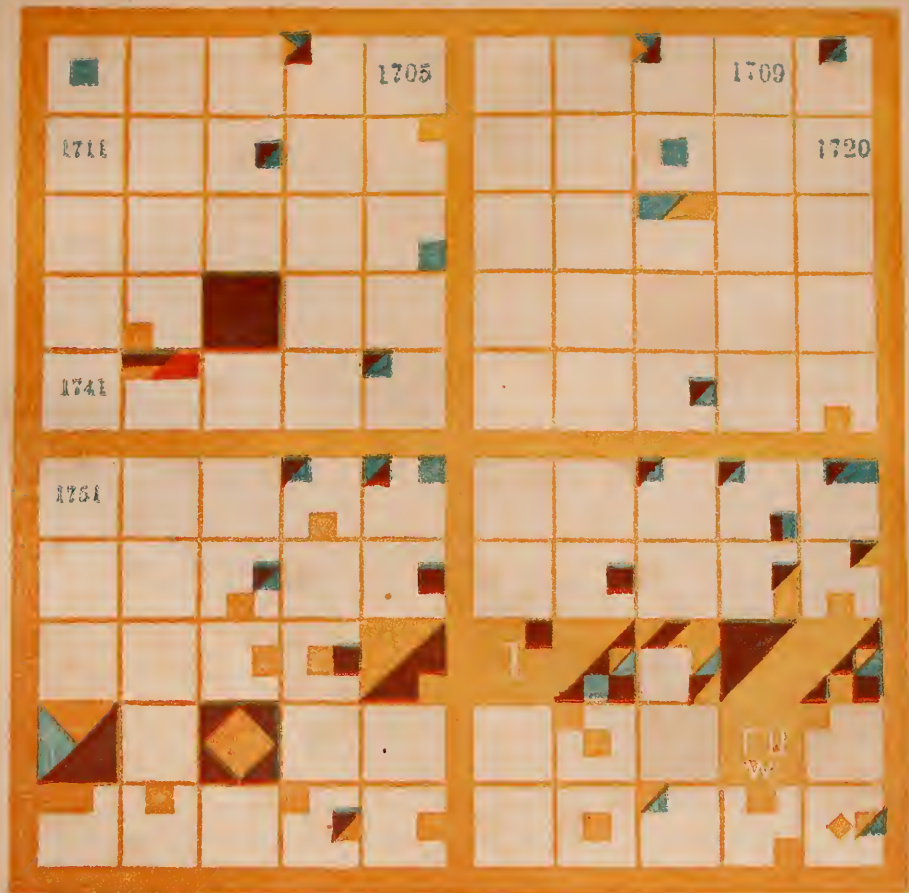
### CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF THE 18TH CENTURY.

- 1701. French found Detroit, Kaskaskia, &c.
- 1704. French and Indian Massacre at Deerfield, N. H.
- 1708. French and Indian Massacre at Haverhill, N. H.
- 1710. English Conquer Portroyal in Acadia.
- 1713. Peace of Utrecht restores all conquests to France.
- 1715. Tuscarooras—driven from South Carolina by German Emigrants—join the FIVE NATIONS.
- 1725. Death of the Jesuit Missionary R  le in Maine.
- 1728. Destruction of the Natchez tribe by the French.
- 1732. George Washington, born in Virginia.
- 1733. Georgia founded by James Oglethorpe.
- 1742. Oglethorpe and Indians drive Spaniards from Georgia.
- 1745. Louisburg captured by William Pepperell of Boston.
- 1748. Peace of Aix-le-Chapelle restores it to France.
- 1750. Franklin's experiments on electricity?
- 1754. Washington's mission to the French, at Venango.  
His victory at Great Meadows.
- 1755. Braddock defeated by French. Acadians expelled.
- 1758. Final capture of Louisburg by the English.
- 1759. Quebec captured. Wolfe and Montcalm both fall.
- 1760. English conquer Canada and the French lose it.
- 1763. Peace of Paris.—Pontiac's great conspiracy.
- 1765. STAMP ACT, which is repealed the next year.
- 1767. Parliament imposes duties on tea, &c.









100

100

100

100

1769. Pontiac makes peace. He is assassinated.
1770. Boston Massacre. Otis' and Quincy's magnanimity.
1773. 'Boston Tea party,' and other demonstrations.
1774. Boston Port-bill. First General Congress at New York.
1775. BATTLE OF LEXINGTON begins Revolutionary War, April 19th; followed by the taking of Ticonderoga, Crownpoint and Whitehall, in May, and Battle of BUNKER HILL in June. Montgomery is killed at Quebec; Washington made General-in-Chief by Continental Congress, assembled in Pennsylvania.
1776. INDEPENDENCE DECLARED, July 4th. Washington drives the British from Boston, March 17th; loses the battle of Brooklyn and Whiteplains soon after; American victories at Ft. Moultrie, and at TRENTON.
1777. Victories at PRINCETON, Sag Harbour, and in Connecticut; at BENNINGTON, Stillwater and SARATOGA. Embassy to France for help.
1778. French Alliance. Victory at Valley Forge. Defeat on Quaker Hill. Savannah taken by the British. Massacre at Wyoming by Tories and Indians.
1779. Victory of Pickens, near Augusta. Wyoming avenged, but defeats generally, especially at the South.
1780. Victories at Hanging Rock and King's Mountain. Arnold's treason. Andre's death. French reinforcement.
1781. Victories at Cowpens; Guilford Meeting House; Eutaw Springs, and YORKTOWN, end the war.
1683. England acknowledges Independance of U. S.
1787. Shay's rebellion. CONSTITUENT CONVENTION.
1789. FEDERAL UNION. WASHINGTON, 1st President.
1790. Indian War. Harmer defeated.
1791. St. Clair defeated. Vermont admitted into the Union.

1792. Kentucky separated from Virginia, and admitted.  
1794. Jay's Treaty. Wayne ends the Indian War.  
1795. A kind of treaty with the Barbary States.  
1797. John Adams, 2nd President of the United States.  
1798. Short French War, altogether naval.  
1799. Washington's death. Tennessee admitted.  
1800. Federal Government removes to Washington. Treaty of peace with Bonaparte.

### LESSON XIX.—TABLE AND PLATE OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.\*

How does the Plate represent the French founding Detroit, &c., in 1701? How does it represent the French and Indian massacres in 1704 and 1708? the English conquest of Acadia? Peace of Utrecht? Death of Râle? Tuscaroora emigration? Washington's birth? Georgia founded? Oglethorpe and Indians' war? Louisburg captured? Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle? Franklin's discoveries? Washington's mission? His victory at G. M.? Braddock's defeat? Expulsion of Acadians? Louisburg taken? Quebec taken? Wolfe's and Montcalm's death? French surrender of Canada? Peace of Paris? Pontiac's conspiracy? His death? Stamp act? Duties on tea, &c.? Boston massacre? Otis and Quincy's magnanimity? Tea party? Port bill? First general Congress? Battle of Lexington, &c.? (The pupils can easily answer the above questions, by saying what subdivision of what year is painted, and with what color, and in what shape; whether square, parallelogram, or triangle. But in the years of the war the representation is general, and

\* Let the pupils have the Plate before their eyes, and describe carefully these representations, keeping in mind the subdivision into ninths, even where it is not marked off.



the whole squares are *filled*, to represent the importance of the events. Thus, say for the year 1775: The whole square is first divided into two triangles; the upper one orange, to represent the conquering Americans in all the battles of the year; the ninth subdivision orange, to represent Montgomery's death, the first officer killed; the rest is purple, to represent the discomfited British. The year 1776 is nearly filled with the orange, as it was so great an epoch in America. The British loss is represented by the third subdivision, painted purple. The painting is made as various as is possible, considering the general rules laid down in the explanation of the Painted Centuries. To ask these questions on the Table, and to vary the questions in every ingenious way, requiring the pupils to examine the painted Plate, helps to fix the attention, and secure the recollection of it with the associated events. A life-long impression is what is aimed at. The general success of 1777, including the victory over Burgoyne at Saratoga, is represented by the upper triangle, in orange; and the embassy to the French, by the blue triangle of the sixth subdivision. The general misfortunes of 1778, especially in the South, are represented by the lower triangle, in orange. The French alliance, also, by the blue in the sixth subdivision. The French assistance, under Rochambeau, is represented in the sixth subd. 1780 by orange and blue; Arnold's treason, by orange, in the eighth; Andre's death, by purple, in the ninth; the American victories in the South, by the upper triangle of the first, in orange, and the lower one in purple; the final victory at Yorktown, by the blue and orange triangles in the upper half of the year and square for 1781, and the purple in the lower triangle. The English acknowledgment of Independence, by the purple around the orange in the year square for 1783. The whole square is orange, to represent the adoption of the Constitution of the Federal Union.

## GEORGIA.

In the early part of the eighteenth century, a thirteenth colony was added to the twelve planted by the English in the seventeenth century. It was on the first day of February, 1733, that a small sloop entered the Savannah river, and sailing up to the present site of the town so named, disembarked a company of English emigrants, who erected a tent under four beautiful pine trees, where, for more than a year, dwelt James Oglethorpe, the parent as well as founder of the colony of Georgia.

Oglethorpe was a member of the British Parliament, and "the first in the annals of legislative philanthropy," says Bancroft, "who attempted to lighten the lot of debtors." In England, "every year, as many as four thousand of these unfortunates" were doomed to imprisonment, being liable to it for the smallest debt. For their relief, George II., on the petition of Oglethorpe, made to him a grant of the country between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers, which was named Georgia, in honor of the royal donor.

But Oglethorpe did not confine his invitations to emigrate to the poor debtors of England; he extended them to poor Protestants of the continent, where a reaction from the wars for liberty of conscience had taken place, and everything was tending towards the despotism already consolidated in Germanic Austria and Prussia, as well as in Keltic and Romanic France and Spain. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in England was immediately addressed by a party of German Moravians, with a petition to assist them in emigrating to Georgia. Their passage was paid by the Society, with provisions for a year, and Oglethorpe granted them land rent free for ten years, when they were to pay a small quit rent.

Freedom of worship, and all the rights enjoyed by Englishmen, were also guaranteed. Bancroft tells all about this interesting emigration in his chapter twenty-fourth.

Oglethorpe's relations with the Indians were in keeping with the rest of his humane actions. The first red chieftain who treated with him, brought him a buffalo skin, on the inside of which an eagle was represented, by means of an arrangement of his own feathers. "There is a little present for you," said he. "The buffalo skin is warm, and means protection; the feathers of the eagle signify love." The treaty that Oglethorpe made with the children of the forest was not violated for a century. The tribes were of a gentle character, and already cultivating their lands. They became most important allies against the Spaniards, with whom Oglethorpe came into collision on the question of boundaries. Oglethorpe was a gallant soldier, and in the war, 1742, succeeded, by a series of brave actions, to stretch his domain from the Altamaha to the St. Mary's river, though the Spaniards at first claimed even to the Savannah.

The trading interests of England favored the colony of Georgia, which intended forthwith to cultivate the vine and the silk-worm. The device for its seal was a group of silk-worms at work, with the motto: "Not for ourselves, but others." On the reverse was a female figure—Georgia Augusta—between two river gods reposing on their urns. She had a liberty cap on her head, a spear in one hand, and a horn of plenty in the other. But, as Bancroft says, "the cap of liberty was, for that time at least, a false emblem; for all executive and legislative power, and the institution of courts, were for twenty-one years given exclusively to the trustees, or to a council which they appointed to serve during good behavior. The trustees—men of benevolence and leisure, but ignorant of the nature and value of popular liberty—held their grants to con-

tain but proper powers for establishing and governing the colony."

Savannah was laid out with regularity, in 1734, a public square being reserved in each quarter ; while a walk through the woods led to a garden on the river side, which was destined to be a nursery of European fruit, as well as of the wonderful productions of America. The next year, Augusta, already a station for the Indian trade, was laid out as a city. The Moravians established themselves at Ebenezer, as they called their village, on an inland site. The Moravian pastor, some years after, wrote thus of Oglethorpe : " He has taken care of us, to the best of his ability. He bears a great love to the children and servants of God." The Governor of South Carolina said of him : " His undertaking will succeed, for he nobly devotes all his powers to serve the poor and rescue them from wretchedness." Charles Wesley was Oglethorpe's private secretary, and soon came out, together with his brother John, to reside in America, the latter " eager to become an apostle to the Indians." The intercourse of the Wesleys with the Moravians in Georgia, doubtless contributed to the development of Methodism in their minds. Later, George Whitfield came out, and " founded an orphan-house in Savannah, which he sustained by contributions that his eloquence extorted " from the other colonies where he travelled and preached.

Oglethorpe was thirty years of age when he founded the colony of Georgia, and he lived to be eighty, devoting half a century to its interests. " Even in his last year," Bancroft says, " he was extolled as the finest figure ever seen, the impersonation of venerable age ; his faculties were as bright as ever, and his eyesight undimmed. Ever heroic, romantic, and full of the old gallantry, he was like the sound of the lyre as it still vibrates, after the spirit of the age that swept its strings has passed away."



But, after all, he was a man who did not comprehend the spirit of the age in which he lived. Bancroft describes him "of honorable lineage, from boyhood devoted to the profession of arms; by hereditary attachment, and by personal character, a friend to legitimacy; the representative of that chivalry which knew neither fear nor reproach, and felt a stain on honor like a wound; \* \* \* filled with the sentiment of humanity, yet having a predilection for hierarchical forms; revering the institutions of aristocracy, with a genuine faith in them, and willing to protect the humble, rather than surrender power and establish equality; \* \* \* a monarchist in state, friendly to the church, he seemed even in youth, one who had survived his times, the relic of a former century, and of a more chivalrous age; illustrating to the modern world of business, what a crowd of virtues and charities could cluster round the heart of a cavalier."

But because he was behind his time, on the question of popular liberty, his legislation did not survive him. After the royal government was established, not only its bad features, like his system of male entailment of property, but *all* its peculiar characteristics passed into oblivion. For twenty-five years before his death, he ceased to struggle against negro slavery, whose introduction, he says, was "the irresistible effect of the royal government established in 1757." It had been a favorite object of his, to check negro slavery, though at the time the proceeds of the trade were a vast revenue to England. "My friends and I," he writes, "by charter were established trustees, and settled the colony of Georgia. We determined not to suffer slavery there. \* \* \* Slavery is against the gospel, as well as against the fundamental law of England. We refused—as trustees—to make a law, permitting such a horrid crime." Within three years of the settlement of Savannah, when Oglethorpe was in England, the planters

addressed to the trustees a petition "for the use of negroes." "They were sternly refused," and Oglethorpe declared, that "if slaves should be introduced into the colony, he would have no farther concern with it." The trustees in general "applauded his decision" and persisted in denying the use of negroes, "even though the planters should desert."

The history which Bancroft gives in his Twenty-fourth Chapter of the relations of American Slavery to the English government, clearly shows that its existence in the colonies grew out of the all prevailing commercial spirit, which dates its *complete development* in England, to the revolution of 1688. For purely commercial reasons, the government of England, at first even forbade to Georgia the traffic and use of negroes, "on account of the near neighborhood of the Spaniards;" and because (to use their own words) "slaves starve the poor white labourer, for whose benefit the charter of Georgia was given." The Moravians, at first, in earnest memorials, deprecated the employment of negro slaves; pleading "the ability of the white man to labor, even under the suns of Georgia." Subsequently they yielded their objection to the suggestion, that the negroes might perhaps be employed to their own benefit, since they would be brought from Paganism in Africa, to the possible knowledge of Christianity. At any rate, in spite of Oglethorpe's opposition, backed by his friend John Wesley, who characterized the system as "the sum of all villanies," slavery was introduced into Georgia. Afterwards, the planting of cotton, but more especially the invention of the cotton gin in 1792, established completely this child of commerce. Georgia, with South Carolina, held out in the Federal Convention, refusing to join the Union until a compromise was made with Slavery.\*

\* See Madison papers, for the action of Georgia in 1787-9 upon Slavery. They have in 1855, with South Carolina, taken the ground that

## LESSON XX.—GEORGIA.

When was Georgia colonized? by whom? What philanthropy was he engaged in? What connection had this with the colonization of Georgia? Whom did Oglethorpe invite into his colony; What political circumstances in Europe suggested this invitation to his humanity? What do you remember of the immigration of Moravians to Georgia? What do you remember of Oglethorpe's relations with the Indians? How did the Indians requite his kindness? In what war, and to what issue, was he engaged in 1742? What agricultural plans had the Georgians? What were the devices on the seal of Georgia? How was Georgia governed? What towns were laid out, and how? What did the Moravians say of Oglethorpe? What did the Governor of South Carolina say? What distinguished persons of the religious world immigrated into Georgia? What kind of a person was Oglethorpe? How was he behind his time? Did his legislation survive him? When, and by what influence, was negro slavery established in Georgia? What views were taken by Oglethorpe, and the trustees, on this question, and how did they act? What does Bancroft prove by his chapter on the subject? Why had the English government previously forbidden it? How did the Moravians view the subject? What, at last, established slavery firmly?

## LESSON XXI.—FRENCH AND INDIAN WARS.

What possessions did the peace of Ryswick assure to France? Did their missionaries keep within that border?

Slavery makes the best kind of society, and that *liberty* is not good for all men.

Where did they build forts in 1701? What caused the frequent wars between the French and English colonies? What antagonisms and rivalries stimulated it? What caused the "war of the Spanish succession," called "Queen Anne's war?" Why was it peculiarly horrible in America? Was it *extensive* in America? What place was conquered, and changed its name? What do you remember about the massacre of Deerfield, N. H., in 1704? What of Eunice Williams and her daughter? What about the massacre of Haverhill? What treaty closed this war? What were its terms? What do you remember of the Tuscaroora tribe of Indians, in 1715? What was the cause? What of the war with the Yamasees? What was the cause of a treaty with the Cherokees? What places were founded in 1716 and 1718? What do you remember of the Natchez, and their destruction by the French? What excited the Abenakis of Maine to war? What did the government of Massachusetts do in this war? What exploit of Captain Westbrook is recorded, in 1723? What excited Massachusetts to these things? Which party succeeded best as missionaries, and why? What do you remember of the missionary R  le (pronounced Rahl, sometimes written Rasle)? What is the story of his martyrdom? When did the Abenakis make a treaty with the English? What caused the "war of the Austrian succession?" What was its most important event in America? Give an account of the capture of Louisburg. What was the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in relation to this country? How were the colonists compensated for giving up Louisburg again?

## LESSON XXII.—OLD FRENCH WAR.

Which of the five French wars is traditionally called "The old French war?" What caused this war? What did Wash-



ington do preliminary to this war? Tell about his mission. What was the commencement of the bloodshed? What forts were built, and why? What campaign was planned for 1755, and by whom? Who planned, and what was the expulsion of the Acadians? What American authors have immortalized this story in art? How did Braddock succeed? How, Shirley and Johnson? What efforts were made by the colonists to carry on this war? Which side seemed to lose, at first? How large an army was raised by the English, in 1758? How large was the Canadian army? What was the whole population of Canada? Were the English army all colonists? What places were immediately stormed and taken? What did the British Parliament do, in 1759, to encourage the colonies? What was the greatest act of the war? Describe the position of Quebec, and the positions taken by Wolfe and Montcalm, respectively. What was Wolfe's first attempt? What was his next movement, in the night of September 12th? What happened the next morning? What was the battle, and its issue? When was Canada surrendered to the British? When was the treaty of peace signed?

#### PONTIAC'S CONSPIRACY.

What effect had the French surrender of Canada upon the position of the Indians? Which nation did the Indians like best? Why? What remarkable prophecy was spread about among the Indians? Who was Pontiac? What was his plan? On what hope did he support himself? Who strengthened this hope, and why? Who has written a brilliant history of this conspiracy? How did he get his information? Does his book give a fair account of the Indians? How many forts did Pontiac undertake to surprise? Did he succeed, and how? How was Detroit saved? Did the Indians persevere in their

attempts against it? Did they make any other massacres? What fort was relieved before the Indians took it? Did the French do any thing to aid the Indians? How long did Pontiac keep up his confederation, after he found that the French would not assist him? When and why did he make peace? What became of him? How was his death avenged?

#### FRENCH AND INDIAN WARS OF THE 18TH CENTURY.

The peace of Ryswick, in 1697, had assured to France the country north of the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence, and west of the Mississippi; but the boundary was not very definite. Their missionary stations were, many of them, south of the St. Lawrence; even down upon the Penobscot and Kennebec in the east; and in the west, in the beginning of the eighteenth century, they built forts at Detroit, Kaskaskia, and many other places.\* Whenever there was war in Europe between France and England, the colonies of the two nations participated, stimulated by the opposition of religious opinion, and by the rival trading interests of the fishing and fur companies of both countries.

The war of the Spanish succession, called in America Queen Anne's War, involved most of Europe; England and Austria opposing Louis XIV's scheme of putting his grandson on the throne of Spain, which, however, he finally accomplished. Both parties in America engaged Indians in their armies, which made this war horrible. It raged on the Lakes and down the Mississippi, and involved the Spanish settlement of St. Augustine, which was twice taken and lost by the South Carolinians. Acadia was then reconquered by the English,

\* See Bancroft, xxi.

who changed its name to Nova Scotia, and the name of Port Royal to Annapolis, (Anne's city).

The massacres of Deerfield and Haverhill show the character of this war. Hertel de Ronville, in February of 1704, with 200 French, and 142 Indians, walked on the snow crust all the way from Canada, to attack Deerfield, N. H. The generally vigilant sentinels who watched, as all the border was watched, had rather carelessly retired towards morning, and were aroused, with the rest of the village, by the war-whoop. A hundred and twelve captives were taken, besides forty-seven killed; and every house in the village, except the church, was in ashes, by an hour after sunrise. The party immediately started for Canada with their captives. A recent mother—Eunice Williams—the minister's wife, who fainted on the way, was dispatched by the tomahawk. So was every child that cried. Two men starved. Eunice Williams' daughter, seven years of age, was carried to a Catholic village of Indians, near Montreal, and there made a Catholic, and the wife of a Cahnewaga chief. Years after, she went back to Deerfield to visit her relations; but would return to her Indian home, in spite of the whole village, that instituted a *fast*, and assembled to pray for her conversion.

Four years after, the same French officer, De Ronville, attacked Haverhill, then a cluster of thirty cottages and log cabins, around a newly erected meeting-house. The invaders slept in the surrounding forest on the night of August 29th. At daybreak, the war-whoop rang out, and the cry of the dying arose. "Benjamin Rolfe, the minister, was beaten to death; one Indian sank a hatchet deep into the brain of his wife, while another caught his infant child from its dying mother, and dashed his head against a stone." The attacks in all the houses were simultaneous, but there was an attempt at resistance, and the invaders were at last driven off, though



not till the day was far advanced, and a multitude had been killed. The burial ground of Haverhill still tells the fearful tale. The whole country was in a perpetual alarm, and on watch.

The treaty of Utrecht closed Queen Anne's war in 1713; and settled a good deal of the Northern boundary in favor of the English, besides arranging what is now called the "balance of power" in Europe; and securing a monopoly of the trade in negroes to England! "Her Britannic majesty did offer and undertake," such are the words of the treaty, "to bring into the West Indies of America, belonging to his Catholic majesty (of Spain), 144,000 negroes, at the rate of 4,800 in each of the next succeeding thirty years." This stipulation had such consequences for America, that it should be mentioned here. The British government derived a great revenue from the slave trade, and even South Carolina complained of "the ruinous influx of slaves."

The Tuscarooras of Carolina, were expelled from their native hunting grounds, soon after this peace. Going North, in 1718, they joined the "Five nations"—afterwards called "Six Nations." The immediate cause of the massacres on the Neuse that led to this expulsion, was an attempt of some German emigrants from the Palatinate, to survey lands which the Tuscarooras claimed. Bancroft tells the details of this affair in his XXIII chapter; also of a war with the Yamasees, which cost South Carolina 400 of its inhabitants, and was believed to have been excited by the French.

This war with the Yamasees was soon followed by a treaty of alliance between the English and the Cherokees, whose country interposed a barrier of defence against the Indians on the Mississippi, who were in alliance with the French.

At Natchez, the French had built Fort Rosalie, in 1716; and in 1718 New Orleans was founded, to carry out the finan-



cial schemes of John Law. The destruction of the Natchez Indians occurred about ten years after. Chopart, one of the French of Fort Rosalie, demanded the site of the village of the Natchez for a plantation. This tribe was, if possible, more than usually attached to their locality. It was the residence of "the Great Sun," as they called their chief, (for these people had a peculiar religion and customs, and seem to have had some affinity to Inca-governed Peru.) Hearing of Chopart's wish, they were beforehand with him, and rose and murdered all the French, among others a Jesuit missionary to the Arkansaws, who happened to be passing at the time in a boat on the river Mississippi. When the French at New Orleans heard of this, they were terrified, and by means of the Indian disciples of the murdered priest, and the Yazocs, together with the Illinois tribes, who were under the influence of the French Jesuits, and the Choctaws, who were hereditary enemies of the Natchez, they made up a force against the Natchez, and exterminated all the tribe, except those that they took prisoners, which were only about two hundred, including the "Great Sun" himself, who were carried into Hispaniola, and sold as slaves.

The Abenakis of Maine were not only excited to war with the English, as French allies, but on their own account, as the English were stretching into their hunting grounds, on the pretext of driving off French Jesuits, who had missionary stations among them. The government of Massachusetts offered a bounty of from fifteen to a hundred pounds for every Indian scalp! In the spring of 1723, Captain Westbrooke marched upon the Indian settlement of Old Town, near the Penobscot, where a French Jesuit had a house, and near by a chapel, sixty feet long and thirty wide, well and handsomely furnished within and without, and defended by a regularly built fort, two hundred and ten feet long, and one hundred and fifty

broad, well protected by stockades, fourteen feet high. There were twenty-three nice houses inside the fort. The invaders arrived at six o'clock in the evening, and the Indian warriors being absent, they set it on fire. In the morning all was a heap of ashes.

The Protestant zeal of Massachusetts was excited by the idea of rescuing the Indians from the Catholic influence; and that was to be done only by destroying all the missionary stations. They tried at first a rival missionary station; but that did not succeed. The methods of the Catholics were more attractive to the Indians than those of the Puritans. It was intrinsically easier to train them to the Catholic service than to instruct them in an intellectual creed, or awaken by words purely spiritual ideas. The most sad of all these exciting stories, is that of the martyrdom of R  le. He had once a mission among the Illinois; but in the last part of the seventeenth century he went upon the Kennebec, and gathered at the village of Norridgewock an Indian flock. He painted the walls of his little church himself, with pictures of Christ and the saints; and trained the young savages, arrayed in cassock and surplice, to chant hymns, walk in processions, and wave the incense. He also built one chapel in the wilderness to the Virgin, whose image adorned its walls; and another to the Guardian Angel. He made himself the companion and instructor of savages, winning their imagination by every loving and pious art, and commanding their reverence by his example of entire personal self-denial. The English demanded of his little flock the surrender of their beloved pastor, which was refused. They then went with a large force to seize him, but he escaped into the woods; and the Indian warriors being absent on a hunt, there was no battle. When the Indians returned and found what had passed, they determined to revenge the insult. "They sent deputies," says Bancroft, "to carry

the hatchet and chant the war song among the Hurons of Quebec, and in every village of the Abenakis. The war chiefs met at Norridgewock, and the work of destruction began by the burning of Brunswick." But the feeble means of the Indians failed against the English force. Râle told them they could do nothing without the aid of the French, and advised them all to go to Canada. But he would not himself desert the church of Norridgewock. "I count not my life dear unto myself," he said, "so I may finish with joy the ministry which I have received." At last he did fall into the hands of the English, who contrived to surprise Norridgewock, when only fifty warriors were at home. These were aroused from sleep by the firing of the English guns into their cabins. Râle, in order to enable them to secure the flight of their wives, children, and old men, presented himself to the assailants, in the well founded hope of drawing off all attention to himself. By means of this humane artifice, the warriors were able to transport their helpless ones over the river, while the English set on fire the village, pillaged and destroyed the beautiful little church, and left Râle, mangled by many wounds, scalped, his skull broken in many places, his mouth and eyes filled with dirt.

When the warriors returned, they found the English had gone, and their beloved priest's remains. They gathered them up and buried them reverently, in the spot immediately under the altar where he had ministered so faithfully.

The destruction of the French missions produced an end to the French influence in Maine. The Abenakis made a treaty with the English in 1726; and trading stations succeeded to the Catholic chapels. The most important event in America, of the war of the Austrian succession, (caused by all Europe ranging itself for or against Maria Theresa's becoming Empress of Germany on Charles the Sixth's death,) was the



taking of Louisburg, a strong fortification on Cape Breton. This was done by an army raised from all the colonies, and commanded by Sir William Pepperell, a merchant of Boston. Louisburg was a fortress on which the French had expended five millions of dollars, it being situated admirably to guard their fishing interest and the Canadas. The English, on the other hand, were greatly annoyed by the presence near Newfoundland of the French cruisers, and Governor Shirley of Massachusetts, (which was the colony most interested in the fisheries,) thought it was the best service that could be done the English interest, to capture Louisburg; and he interested all the colonies in the scheme. Four ships of war belonging to the British West India fleet came to his aid, and between four and five thousand men sailed out of Boston harbor in great spirits for Louisburg, one fine morning in April, 1745. They found it, however, not a very easy matter to take Louisburg, and made five different attacks, suffering great hardships in the cold, wintry climate. But as the British West India cruisers cut off the supplies from France, and the garrison of Louisburg was feeble, it surrendered.

The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, which took place in 1748, closed this war before any thing more could be accomplished; though great preparations were making for the defence and conquest of Canada by the two parties. By this peace, to the great vexation of the people of Massachusetts, Louisburg was returned to the French, who even obtained two more islands for fishing stations, on the south shore of Newfoundland, but they were consoled a little, by receiving as an indemnity for their expenses, a million of dollars in gold and silver.

#### “ OLD FRENCH WAR.”

THE last of the French wars is known traditionally as “the old French War;” being recognized as but the fifth act of a



military drama, which began in the early part of the 17th century. The French, in the middle of the 18th century, began to think of securing the North and West of North America to themselves, by a line of forts which should begin at Crown Point, on Lake Champlain, within the hunting grounds of the Six Nations, and extend to Fort Niagara; thence to what is now Pittsburgh, but then was Fort Du Quesne, all along the Ohio to St Louis, and down the Mississippi, including both banks. This line would confine the English to the eastern side of the Alleghanies, and it was to remonstrate against the first movement to this end, that George Washington was sent as Ambassador to Fort Venango, on the Alleghany river, in 1754. He was received politely, and the commander of the fort said that he would send his message to his Commander-in-chief. He then proffered hospitality to Washington, to whom was betrayed by the genial French officers, as they sat over their wine, the whole important plan. Carrying this information to the Governor of Virginia, a military expedition was at once resolved upon, and Washington was made its commander, who, in a defeat of the French at Great Meadows, commenced the blood-shed of this war. In this same year Indian depredations were made upon the frontiers of Maine, and Governor Shirley built Fort Halifax, on the Kennebec, while Washington was fortifying Will's Creek, in the Northwestern part of Virginia.

In 1755, the first regular campaign of the war began, under General Braddock; all the colonies having been ordered to send him levies. The plan of the campaign was agreed upon at Alexandria, Virginia, where all the colonial governors met in council. General Braddock was to go against Fort Du Quesne and expel the French from the Ohio. Crownpoint was to be attacked by Johnson, (who had married an Indian wife, and had great influence in the Six Nations); and Shirley

was to march against Fort Niagara. But there was another expedition planned by Shirley, together with the Chief Justice of Nova Scotia, which involved the expulsion of the French inhabitants of Acadia. This province had been conquered by the English, in the previous French war; but the inhabitants were still French, who had been excused by the terms of the treaty of peace from ever being called upon to bear arms against France. In their neutrality they had cultivated the arts of peace, and made their northern homesteads a kind of rural paradise. It was said, however, that some of their young men were found in the garrison of Beau Sejour, when it surrendered; and this was made the pretext of the expulsion. They were not ordered to leave, and go where they pleased; because that would have swelled the French forces. It was determined therefore to kidnap them, carry them off, and distribute them among the English colonies. Under various pretences, the Acadians were made to assemble in their parish churches unarmed; and there they were surrounded by soldiers, and carried off to the ships. In this operation members of families were separated from each other, who never met again. They were spread through the English colonies, where they became subjects of charity, and from which many were transported into the West India islands; while some were sent to France at public expense. They had been allowed to take nothing of their property: their houses had been burnt, and all their lands, crops, and cattle, declared forfeit. The cruelty of this act has been immortalized in Longfellow's beautiful story of Evangeline, and its details are given in Bancroft's History, volume IV, Chapter VIII, and among Hawthorne's true Tales for children; a book which may be read by very young students. Its gifted author could not do a greater service to his country, than to tell, in like manner, all the picturesque of United States his-

tory. It would be virtually making *the ballads* of his nation.

The other expeditions failed. General Braddock was defeated by the enemy in ambush, to which he exposed himself imprudently, notwithstanding Washington's advice. He had had a terrible march through the woods. Shirley and Johnson, also, were so disabled by their hardships, that they succeeded only in building new forts, the former at Oswego, the latter at the head of the boat navigation on the Hudson. An immense effort, all over the country, was now made to raise money and troops; and, at this time, the Quakers lost their political influence in Pennsylvania, as their objection to war made it necessary for them to resign their places in the government. Franklin was the first commander of the volunteer militia of Pennsylvania. Some few efforts were now made at negotiation; but they all failed; and England declared war against France, on the other side of the Atlantic. The English lost Fort Oswego, and Fort William Henry, while the French, compelling the Six Nations to neutrality, by the help of their own Indian allies, retained all their forts from Louisburg to the Ohio, till 1758. But then the English army was 50,000 men, ten times as many as the French soldiery; and more than twice as much as all the inhabitants of Canada. More than half the English army were the colonists. Louisburg and several French forts were vigorously attacked, most of them with distinguished success; and the British parliament, to encourage the colonies in their efforts, paid over in 1759, a million of dollars reimbursement.

The greatest act of the war, all whose details may be read in Bancroft's IV volume, was the storming of Quebec by General Wolfe. This city is in two parts, the lower part built on the shores of the St. Lawrence; the upper part, on the Plains of Abraham, which surmount a perpendicular range of lofty rocks, just back of the lower city. Wolfe began with



taking possession of the river, which his naval superiority to the French enabled him to do. He then attempted to drive the French General Montcalm, from his camp, where he lay with his army, strongly intrenched—not far from Quebec. As he did not succeed in his first attempt at this, he concluded to take the advice of his officers, and attempt to scale the rocks of Abraham, a measure so bold, that the French had not guarded against it. It was done in the night of September 12th, 1759; and the next morning, Montcalm was amazed to see the whole British army drawn up on the Plains above the precipice. He rushed to the battle, which was terrible. Both Wolfe and Montcalm fell, and the English lost more men than the French; but the English were victorious, and Canada was surrendered in 1760. In 1763, a treaty was signed, which guaranteed to the English all that is now called British America, as well as all the territory east of the Mississippi. The French settlers were allowed to remain however, and their social and religious rights were assured to them.

#### PONTIAC'S CONSPIRACY.

The yielding of the French to the English, awoke among the Indians a well-grounded fear for themselves. Hitherto they had been an important and acknowledged power, holding the balance between the two parties. But the French having yielded, the Indians saw that the English predominance threatened their own destruction. Of the two, the French were the more agreeable allies to the Indians. They more easily amalgamated with the red men; and they had succeeded best in Christianizing them. The Jesuits had made more impression than the traders. Even the Iroquois, allies for more than a century, ceased to love the English, who demoralized them with rum, which the French always prohibited. An



Abenaki prophet declared that the Great Manitou had appeared to him, and said: "I am the master of Life: it is I who make all men; I wake for their safety. Therefore, I give you warning, that if you suffer the Englishmen to dwell in your midst, their diseases and their poisons shall destroy you utterly, and you shall die." These words spread far and wide among the tribes; and PONTIAC heard them.

Pontiac was the chief of the Ottawas, and one of the most gifted of his race; not only in eloquence, but in every quality of mind that makes the statesman. He conceived the plan of uniting the whole Indian race in one vast conspiracy, which, at a given time, should rise at once upon all the forts that had passed into the hands of the English, at the late surrender; and reconquer them for the French. He believed that with such an efficient aid, the French would gladly resume their rule, and the "great King would awake out of the sleep," during which he had inadvertently allowed the English to triumph. Undoubtedly his confidence was strengthened, if it had not been awakened at first, by French Canadians, who bore with ill grace the triumph of their hereditary enemy.

A very brilliant history of the six years of Pontiac's war, has been written by Francis Parkman, Jun., of Boston, who spent several years among the Indians; and from the mouths of their old men, whose languages he studied, and from old French Canadians, learnt the details of the Indian massacres. He has also interwoven into his narrative a multitude of Pontiac's orations, taken from reliable reports made at the time. The introductory oration and story that he told is very remarkable.

Nothing short of a narrative so extended as Parkman's, can give a fair view of this noble chieftain's last struggle for his race. The first chapter contains a careful account of all the Indian tribes east of the Mississippi, with their ideas. An epi-

tome of the events of the "old French War," follows, and the operations of Pontiac are then given in detail; and nothing has ever been written which gives so powerful a picture of what the Indians are *in war*: but perhaps it is hardly fair to judge of the Indians when their passions are excited into fury by such a death struggle. Mr. Parkman's account, therefore, should be balanced, by reading works like those of the Moravian Heckewelder, for instance, which describe these people as they are in times of peace.

The forts which Pontiac proposed to surprise, were ten; beginning at Detroit, and including Sandusky, Fort St Joseph, Fort Pitt, (lately du Quesne,) Fort Miami, Fort Outanong, Michilimackinack, Presqu' Isle, La Bœuf, and Venango. Into all but Detroit and Fort Pitt, the Indians succeeded to enter, on one device or another, and murdered all the garrisons. Detroit was saved by an Indian girl, who was in love with Gladwin, its commander, and who warned him to put himself on his guard. But he did not seize Pontiac, as he might have done, being unaware of the extent of the plot. Detroit was afterwards openly besieged by the Indians, and many bloody battles fought in its vicinity, from one of which, a river, on whose banks it was fought, has taken the name of "the Bloody Run." Fort Pitt was defended at first, and at length relieved by an English reinforcement. But the surrounding woods, as well as the forts of all the West, were rendered frightful with massacres.

The French officers who had lingered in the country after the surrender, vainly endeavored to mediate, by sending messages and presents to the Indians. They had less influence than the French settlers, who encouraged the war wantonly.

But when Pontiac found that he was indeed too late to save the French domination in the North, he determined to keep up the confederation against the English on his own account;

and doubtless he fondly believed that the French king would at last "awake out of his sleep." His genius for intrigue and war; his unquenchable, fiery patriotism; his indomitable will and energy, kept up the contest for six years, during all which time he kept himself out of the hands of the English, though a price had been set on his head in 1663.

He was finally discouraged. When the English had recovered, as they did, all their forts; and years passed over, and the French king (it was Louis XV.) gave no sign, Pontiac succumbed, and made a treaty of peace.

In the same year (1769), this Indian hero was massacred by one of the Illinois tribe, who was bribed to do the deed by a barrel of rum, promised him by an Englishman. The base deed was fearfully avenged; for a wild Indian war burst forth against the Illinois, and all their tribes were exterminated! As Parkman suggests, the obsequies of Pontiac were celebrated by a massacre, before which those made upon the tomb of Patroclus, as told in "the tale of Troy divine," dwindle into child's play.

While Pontiac's war was still going on in the West, events were transpiring in the East of a purely politico-economical character, which were, however, breeding a war, that more widely and deeply interests the human race—the WAR OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

### WAR OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

We have now come to the event which may be said to begin the proper history of the United States. We have seen the organization of thirteen colonies, in every one of which the idea of a representative government, to be exercised for the good, not of the governing officers, but of the people, was fairly developed; and in one, Massachusetts, more than half a cen-

ture of struggle and protest had been made against the claim of the British *Parliament* to exercise legislative or executive power. In Massachusetts, therefore, first broke forth the voice of organized resistance, when, in pursuance of Lord Grenville's plan of raising a revenue to pay off the expenses of the old French war, Parliament passed the *Stamp act*.

Considering the fact, that it was largely by their own blood and sacrifices Canada had been conquered for England, nothing could be more exasperating to the English colonies, than that they should be called on to pay the war expenses. But when, in addition to this preposterous demand, a trick of legislation was played off upon them, and they were to be compelled, despite of themselves, as it were, to raise this revenue, it is not wonderful that it should wake into self-consciousness the political self-respect of those who had entertained no idea but of loyalty to the British crown. It was as Englishmen that the colonies first resisted the Stamp Act. Massachusetts was not more determined to resist than Virginia and the other colonies. It was the autocracy and stupid pertinacity of the British Parliament, which developed our fierce democracy.

The trick of the Stamp Act was this : Parliament passed a law, that no business paper should be considered legal in the Colonies, but such as was stamped in a certain way ; and then, upon this stamped paper was imposed a custom-house tax of 3d. per pound. This paper they felt sure would be bought, because the people must have their business transactions sustained by the courts of law ; and these could legalize no receipt, no will, no deed, nothing, in short, unless it was written out on stamped paper.

But the short-sighted politicians found that they had to deal with a people who had been educated amidst too many difficulties, to be cheated of their self-respect, or their common sense. They immediately assembled all over the colonies, and



entered into leagues, promising each other to deal fairly and pay their debts, without the help of the courts of law, though they should continue to transact their business upon unstamped paper; and they agreed in a general resolution not to buy the stamped paper at all. Patrick Henry, in the Virginia Legislature, made a great speech, in which he proved, that without representation there could be no taxation, according to admitted principles of the British constitution. In New York, deputies from all the colonies met in the FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS, and declared their rights to be the same as those of the English in England. This Congress made memorials to both houses of Parliament, and to the King. The British government saw that this was not the act of a few politicians, for the populace showed their identity of feeling, by tolling the bells in the towns, on the day the Stamp Act was to take effect; and doing other symbolical things. The mob of Boston tore down Governor Hutchinson's house, because he had attempted to carry out the act of Parliament; and it compelled Mr. Andrew Oliver, whom he had appointed to sell the stamped paper, to promise on oath, that he would offer none for sale; and this was done under a tree in Boston, on which his effigy had been hanged. When the deliberative wisdom of the few, and the passionate instinct of the many, press in one direction, the voice of the people may be fairly considered the voice of God. Mr. Pitt, in the British Parliament, also defended the colonies for resisting the Stamp Act, and denying the right of an assembly in which they were not represented, to impose taxes on them. Even in the House of Lords, the Americans found defenders. From all these different quarters came the one decision, that a government which imposes an unjust law, should be resisted by self-respecting men.\*

\* Very young students can read about the public demonstrations concerning the stamp act in Hawthorne's "True Tales;" and maturer stu-

The Stamp Act was repealed. But men in office will sometimes endeavor to exert their authority and influence against the letter of the constitution of their country, much more against the spirit of eternal law, which gives the highest interpretation to that letter. Lord Grenville, two years after his first disastrous attempt, induced Charles Townsend to introduce a bill into parliament for taxing tea, and some other articles imported by the Colonies, on the pretext that the revenue thence derived should be appropriated to defray the expenses of the colonial government ! This was very cunning ; but the colonies were wide awake, and asked, “ why not leave it to the American assemblies to raise this just revenue for paying the expenses of their own governments ? ” The resistance to parliamentary encroachment was therefore renewed, especially at Boston ; on which six ships of war were ordered to its harbor, and the navy officers were made custom-house officers ; a detachment of the land army being also ordered to Boston, to back the navy officers in collecting the duties.

The presence of this army was very irritating, and not long after, occurred what is called *the Boston Massacre*. The circumstances were these : Some young Boston citizens insulted a British soldier, who was standing on guard before the custom-house in King Street, and a number of persons gathered round to see the fun. The British captain, who was in his barracks, rushed out with his company, on purpose to prevent a disturbance, as he afterwards declared. The mob dared the company to fire ; and they thought they heard the Captain’s order, *as they said*, (and it could not be disproved). Eight persons were killed or wounded, and the crowd dispersed. Of course, the soldiers were brought to trial, on charge of murdering unarmed men ; and what is very remarkable, two of the

dents can study out all the political relations of the subject, in Bancroft’s History, where a whole volume is devoted to it.

popular leaders, James Otis and Josiah Quincy, appeared in their defence, and gained their cause, as only guilty of justifiable manslaughter, in self-defence. This act of magnanimity and justice, showed that the resistance to England, though opposing statute laws, was made in the spirit of the eternal law, which, as Hooker says, descends to men from God's bosom, and is the standard and sanction of all human legislation. On hearing of this affair, Parliament took off all the taxes, except the one on tea, which they stupidly reserved, to assert the very claim which made the taxes odious. But the colonists were sleeplessly vigilant, and non-importation leagues were immediately formed; and when Parliament, by bounties induced the East India company to send cargoes of tea to America, most of the Colonies sent the ships back, without permitting them to unload. Massachusetts could not do so, because of the British fortifications of Boston Harbor, which protected the ships in entering; but a party of patriotic gentlemen, disguised as Indians, went on board the tea-ships in the night, as they lay at anchor, and pitched all their cargoes into the sea!

Upon this, the British Parliament, at the instigation of the prime minister, Lord North, passed the famous "Port Bill," which forbade all commercial intercourse with Boston; ordered four thousand British troops to the town; and, as first Governor Bernard and then Governor Hutchinson had resigned their offices and returned to England, General Gage was made governor of Massachusetts, who put Boston under martial law. The next day after the Port Bill went into operation, June 1, 1774, news came that the Parliament had subverted the charter of the province, and transferred the administration of justice from the American to the English courts. But the whole country came to the aid of oppressed Boston. Salem and Marblehead offered their wharves, and even their labor, to

the Boston merchants. In Virginia, the Assembly, in despite of the Governor, ordered a fast to be held; and all the colonies expressed their sympathy and proffered their aid. The most important thing that ensued was the convention of the Continental Congress at Philadelphia, (on Sept. 15th, 1774.) Each colony had one vote in this assembly, and Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, was its president. It made addresses of remonstrance to the king, to the people of England, and to General Gage, which were all calm statements of the colonial rights under the British constitution. It recommended to the American people a passive resistance, by associating themselves in agreements not to import anything from Great Britain till the obnoxious laws were repealed, and the rights of the colonists acknowledged.

The next British Parliament, instead of yielding, or even replying to these respectful remonstrances, forbade the New England colonies from fishing on the Newfoundland banks, or trading with any countries but Great Britain and the British colonies in the West Indies.

This last outrage consummated the Revolution. In Massachusetts the people, in consequence of the occupation of Boston by British troops, had organized a secret militia, called "minute men." The Committee of Safety, appointed by the Provincial Congress, which had been meeting for more than a year, in private houses, kept their eye on all magazines of ammunition, determined that the British should not get possession of them. There was an attempt made to seize some stores at Danvers; but the people of Salem met the British troops at the north bridge, and tore it up, which prevented their crossing it. There were other stores at Concord; and on the eve of the 19th of April, General Gage ordered a company to leave Boston at midnight, without sound of drum, to go and secure them. But by means of a preconcerted signal, the



“minute men” were called out. The tradition is, that a lamp was lighted in the belfry of the “Old North” Church, and immediately all along the northern road lamps were lighted in all the steeples. The British detachment reached Lexington at day-light, and found a small party out under arms, on which the captain cried out, “Disperse, you rebels.” They did not obey him, of course, and he fired, “killed eight of them, and wounded others.” They then marched on to Concord, and met “the embattled farmers” at a bridge, “who fired the shot heard round the world,” and the first two British soldiers fell. They were buried on the spot. The road has become a field, whose owner granted it for an ornamented common, on condition that the town should build a monument to consecrate the spot. A monument also has been built in Lexington, on the spot where Capt. Pitcairn challenged “the rebels.”

The numbers of the British being much superior to their opponents, all the stores at Concord were destroyed, that had not been removed, and the British, after a short fight, started on their return, meeting at Lexington another company, commanded by Captain Percy, who had been sent to reinforce them.

The whole journey back to Boston, was frightful for the British. It was a running battle, and with no visible foe. The minute men who were remarkable marksmen, fired from behind fences, from houses, and every kind of shelter, and the road from Concord to Charlestown, was strewed with British corpses the whole way. There is, in Cooper’s novel of Lionel Lincoln, a most graphic description of this battle, as well as that of Bunker Hill, which took place two months after. It has always been called the battle of Lexington, though there is a dispute with the people of Concord, who claim that it

should take the name of their town. Its date is April 19th, 1775.\*

The news that war had commenced, spread like wildfire through the colonies, whose several legislative assemblies convened at once, and espoused the cause of Massachusetts, which they felt to be their own; levying troops, and sending them to the vicinity of Boston, where, within six weeks, an army of 20,000 men were assembled, which laid siege to the British troops within the town. They made no assault, however, on account of their friends, who still dwelt there; General Gage having interrupted their removal, in the fear, if only the British and the tories were left, the country people would bring in no provisions.

Warlike demonstrations were not confined to Boston. Some Connecticut men and Green Mountain boys formed a company of volunteers, and under the command of Ethan Allen and others, went up on Lake Champlain, and took possession on May 10th, of the forts at Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Patrick Henry, of Virginia, started to recapture a quantity of powder that Governor Dunmore had ordered on board an armed schooner in James river; and there would have been a battle there, had not Lord Dunmore sent to him the value in money. The very day that Crown Point and Ticonderoga were taken, the Continental Congress at Philadelphia chose for President, Mr. Hancock, who, with Samuel Adams, had been outlawed by General Gage. The next act, of the

\* There are many conflicting accounts of the battle of Lexington. Washington Irving in his *Life of Washington*, differs essentially from the statements made in a letter to the New Hampshire legislature, written by Brig. Gen. Palmer, in behalf of the Committee of Safety of the Provincial Congress, who says:—Pitcairn fired “without provocation, the men being only out exercising.”—*Section 1st, Coll. of New Hampshire, Vol. II.*

Congress, after this, was to authorize bank notes, representing 3,000,000 of dollars, which they pledged themselves, in the name of the country, to redeem, after the war was over; and on the 19th of June, they elected George Washington, Commander-in-Chief of the American forces.

But two days before this was done, another battle had taken place near Boston,—the battle of Bunker Hill. Of this the Congress and George Washington yet knew nothing, it not yet being the day of railroad and telegraph expresses.

It seems that Lord Howe had arrived, to supersede General Gage; for in the letter dated June 20th, which was “favored by General Washington,” to Brigadier General Palmer, John Adams says. “Such a wretch as Howe, with a statue in honor of his family in Westminster Abbey, erected by the Massachusetts, to come over with the design to cut the throats of the Massachusetts people is too much! I most sincerely, and coolly, and devoutly wish, that a lucky ball or bayonet may make a signal example of him, for a warning to such unprincipled—unsentimental miscreants for the future.”

Mr. Adams was hardly able to be ‘cool,’ however ‘sincere.’ He begins the above letter with the words, “Dear Sir; we send you for your comfort the Generals Washington and Lee, with Commissions for Ward and Putnam.” \* \* \* “I think we shall have an ample variety of able, experienced officers in our army; such as may form soldiers and officers enough to keep up a succession for the defence of America for ages. Our camp will be an illustrious school for military virtue, and will be resorted to and frequented by gentlemen in great numbers from the other colonies as such. Great things are in the womb of Providence, great prosperity or adversity, perhaps both, the *latter* first perhaps.”

The battle of Bunker Hill was occasioned by a rumor, that General Gage purposed to send out a company to attack

the people. Generals Putnam, Prescott, and others, therefore, determined to erect a fortification of earth on Bunker Hill, in order to prevent egress on that side. The fort was erected on Breed's hill still nearer Boston, in a single dark night. On the morning of the 17th of June, the British army was surprised to see this redoubt; and made preparations to go and destroy it, by sending several companies in boats across Charles River, from Copp's Hill, the northern point of Boston, to the southern point of Charlestown. They went under cover of the guns of two vessels of war, and disembarking without disturbance, marched up the hill, in great confidence that their warlike array would entirely damp the courage of the Americans, who were hidden behind the redoubt, which had only once showed a sign of life, when General Prescott appeared on top, with a spy glass, for a few moments. But as soon as the British battalion had come within rifle shot of the Americans, a murderous fire flashed all along the top of the redoubt, which, killing every man in the first rank, made the whole company waver backwards. They were rallied however by the officers, and going up again within pistol shot, the like took place; and so it went on until their ammunition being exhausted, the Americans were themselves obliged to retreat, after a little skirmish on the hill, during which General Warren was killed. They then rushed over Charlestown bridge, not in flight, but intentionally, notwithstanding the firing from the ships on the river, and the smoke of Charlestown, which the British had set on fire, covered their retreat. Irving, in his life of Washington, gives a very minute account of the battle of Bunker Hill, and says, when news of it was brought to Washington, who was on his way, he asked how the militia had acted, and having been told, replied, "Thank God! then the liberties of the country are safe!"

Meanwhile, the successes on Lake Champlain were followed



up with an invasion of Canada, by Benedict Arnold, and the Irish General Montgomery. Montreal was taken, but soon lost again; and, in endeavoring to take Quebec, the lamented Montgomery lost his life. It was then seen, that it was best not to involve Canada in the war; the people with their French antecedents being not advanced enough in political ideas, to co-operate with the purely English colonies.

But military operations were not confined to the north in 1775. The militia of Norfolk, Virginia, successfully defended that city against the Governor, Lord Dunmore, who armed the slaves in the party of the royalists. The only military success of the British during the year, was the burning of Falmouth, now called Portland. The battle of Bunker Hill, like that of Thermopylæ in old Greece, was a victory in result, though the British were the last on the field. It showed that the Americans were in earnest, and could fight.

All the details of the battles of the Revolution, are not to be given in this narrative; which aims to give *a birds eye view* of the war. But such students as have access to Botta's war of the American Revolution, especially Sears' Pictorial History or Lossings Pictorial Field book of the Revolution, can learn every particular. At first, it is better to get a general view of the whole; afterwards the details can be studied. Irving's Life of Washington gives excellent accounts of individual officers, and characteristic anecdotes. George Washington, as soon as he was appointed Commander-in-Chief, proceeded to Boston, and was received by the army in Cambridge, under the great tree which still stands upon the Common. He formed a camp west of the waters which make Boston a peninsula; but he made no assault. This was a cause of much wonder, and even discontent, in the army. The real reason of his inactivity, was the want of the munitions of war; a circumstance which he contrived to conceal, even

from his own army, as the betrayal of it to the British, would have been fatal. A letter of his to Brigadier General Palmer exists, in which this cause for his inactivity is stated. It appears from the letter,\* that General Palmer had indicated a certain military movement, which he thought might be advantageously made. General Washington replied :

CAMBRIDGE, Aug. 22d, 1776.

In answer to your favor of yesterday, I must inform you that I have often been told of the advantages of Point Alderton, with respect to its command of the shipping going in and out of Boston harbor ; and that it has, before now, been the object of my particular inquiries ; that I find accounts differ exceedingly in regard to the distance of the ship channel, and that there is a passage on the other side of the light-house island for all vessels except ships of the first rate. My knowledge of this matter would not have rested upon inquiries only, if I had found myself at any one time, since I came to this place, in a condition to have taken such a post. But it becomes my duty to consider, not only what place is advantageous, but what number of men are necessary to defend it, how they can be supported in case of an attack, how they may retreat if they cannot be supported, and what stock of ammunition we are provided with for the purpose of self-defence, or annoyance of the enemy. In respect to the first, I conceive that our defence must be proportioned to the attack of Gen. Gage's whole force (leaving him just enough to man his lines on Charlestown Neck and Roxbury) ; and with regard to the second and most important object, *we have only one hundred and eighty-four barrels of powder in all, which is not sufficient*

\* The original of this letter, as well as the one quoted page 153 from John Adams, is preserved among the papers of the author's family, of which General Palmer was the ancestor.

*to give thirty cartridges a man, and scarce enough to serve the artillery, in any brisk action, a single day.*

Would it be prudent, then, in me, under these circumstances, to take a post thirty miles distant from this place, when we already have a line of circumvallation at least ten miles in extent, any part of which may be attacked (if the enemy will keep their own counsel), without our having one hour's previous notice of it? Or is it prudent to attempt a measure which necessarily would bring on a consumption of *all the ammunition we have*; thereby leaving the army at the mercy of the enemy, or to disperse, and leave the country to be ravaged and laid waste at discretion? *To you, sir*, who are a well-wisher of the cause, and can reason upon the effect of such a conduct, *I may open myself with freedom*, because no improper discoveries will be made of our situation; but I cannot expose my weakness to the enemy (for I believe they are pretty well informed of every thing that passes), by telling this and that man, who are daily pointing out this, that, and t'other place, of all the motives that govern my actions, notwithstanding I know what will be the consequences of not doing it; namely, that I shall be accused of inattention to the public service, and, perhaps, with want of spirit to prosecute it. But this shall have no effect upon my mind, and I will steadily (as far as my judgment will assist me) pursue such measures as I think most conducive to the interest of the cause, and rest satisfied under any obloquy that shall be thrown upon me, conscious of having discharged my duty to the best of my abilities.

I am much obliged to you, however, as I shall be to every gentleman, for pointing out any measure which is thought conducive to the public good; and shall cheerfully follow any advice which is not inconsistent with, but correspondent to the general plan in view, and practicable, under such particular

circumstances as govern in cases of the like kind. In respect to Port Alderton, I was, no longer ago than Monday last, talking to Gen. C. Thomas on this head, and proposing to send Col. Putnam down to take the distances, &c., but considered it could answer no end but to alarm and make the enemy more vigilant. Unless we were in a condition to possess the post to effect, I thought it as well to postpone the matter awhile. I am, dear sir, your very humble servant,

G. WASHINGTON.

Hon. JOSEPH PALMER, Watertown.

In another letter to the same gentleman, dated a fortnight earlier, he says, in reference to another movement: "I am sure nothing could ever be executed here by surprise, as I am well convinced nothing is transacted in our camp or lines, but what is known in Boston, in less than twenty-four hours. Indeed, circumstanced as we are, it is scarce possible to be otherwise," &c.

The only hope of the general-in-chief was, to drive the British army out of Boston, by presenting a firm attitude. It did not succeed during the year, in the course of which the British rejected the last efforts the Americans made for a peaceful solution of the question, and hired 17,000 German mercenaries to be used against the colonies.

But in the spring, having heard that Lord Howe, who had succeeded Gen. Gage, intended to make a sortie into the country, on the opposite side from Bunker Hill, he fortified Dorchester Heights. This fortification, like that of Bunker Hill, was also raised in a single night, and its guns seemed to threaten the British ships in the harbor of Boston. But the British seemed to have a salutary remembrance of Bunker Hill; and after an abortive attempt to embark, and attack the fort from the harbor, Lord Howe, with all his troops, together



with the royalists of Boston,\* went on board the ships, and sailed for Halifax; while Washington marched into the town over the Neck. It was the 17th of March, 1776. Washington did not know where Lord Howe had gone with his troops, and fearing it might be to New York, he put himself, as soon as possible, in marching order for that city, having sent Gen. Lee on before, with the Connecticut militia. But he did not leave Boston without sufficient fortifications to prevent a re-occupation.

Sir Henry Clinton arrived off Sandy Hook, early in May, with a fleet from England, and, as it is supposed, on account of learning that New York was on its guard, he proceeded South, where he expected less preparation, together with Sir Peter Parker, whose fleet (with Lord Cornwallis and his army on board) he met on his way. But Gen. Lee was there before him. Instead of besieging Charleston, S. C., fortunately for the Americans, Clinton attacked the fort on Sullivan's Island, which was most bravely defended by Gen. Moultrie, whose name was afterward given to the fort, which being built of the Palmetto tree, received into its corklike substance—and deadened—the enemy's fire. The battle lasted seven or eight hours, during which the fort was bombarded, and the four hundred men in the garrison fought constantly. Nevertheless, only ten men were killed and twenty-two wounded; while the enemy lost, in killed and wounded, over two hundred, including the royal Governor of the province, Lord Campbell. In a few days, the British fleet sailed away to New York, where all their forces had been commanded to concentrate themselves, and where Lord Howe had arrived from Halifax, and was joined, July 12th, by his brother, Admiral Howe, with still more forces from England.

\* Read Hawthorne's 'Tales of the Province House.'

But, eight days before this, THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE had been made, which Richard Henry Lee proposed, and Thomas Jefferson drafted. All the members of Congress signed it, on the 4th of July, which is therefore celebrated as the birth-day of our nationality.

John Adams prophetically said of it, at the time: "I am apt to believe that it will be celebrated by succeeding generations, as the great anniversary festival. It ought to be commemorated as a day of deliverance, by solemn acts of devotion to Almighty God. It ought to be solemnized with pomp and parade, with shows, games, sports, guns, bells, bonfires, and illuminations, from one end of the continent to another from this time forth for evermore."

The British were determined to take possession of New York; but first Lord Howe sent a letter offering terms of accommodation, it is said, and "pardons to such as deserved mercy." This letter was directed to George Washington, Esq. But the Commander-in-chief declined to receive it, because it did not recognize the title bestowed upon him by his country; nor would he receive another letter addressed to "George Washington, &c., &c." The British Army then landed on Staten Island, between the American Army in New York and a detachment of it above Brooklyn; and here the battle of Brooklyn took place, which was the most hard fought and bloody contest of the whole war. It turned against the Americans, who could bring less than 17,000 troops against 35,000 of the best British soldiers, so that Washington drew off his forces by a masterly retreat, and the British took possession of New York. Immediately afterwards, a battle at White Plains was lost, also the forts Washington and Lee on the Hudson, and Washington retreated across New Jersey and beyond the Delaware. He even spoke of the possibility of going behind the Alleghanies; for although the Americans were never so discouraged during the whole

war, and the army was diminished one half and more, Washington himself did not falter. Lord Cornwallis followed him on his retreat, taking all the towns of New Jersey on the way; and at last fortified himself on the east side of the Delaware, waiting for it to freeze, that he might go across it to Philadelphia. But Washington suddenly determined to recross the river with less than 3,000 men, and attack Cornwallis. There is in the rotunda of the Capital at Washington, a picture by Leutze of this crossing, of which engravings are now very common, and which is very expressive and interesting. In the battle of Trenton the British were defeated, and the Americans took a thousand prisoners; and by means of this brilliant action, the year 1776 ended gloriously for the Americans after all. Washington Irving gives all the details and also tells the multitudinous trials of Washington at this dark season. But the year 1777 began with good omens; for, on the first of January Washington gained the battle of Princeton. On this occasion, Lord Howe was coming to the aid of Lord Cornwallis, who had pursued Washington through New Jersey, when Washington intercepted him, or rather retreated on one side and came round in his rear. He then took possession of Morristown, Newark, Woodbridge and Elizabethtown; and the British, who had so lately had possession of New Jersey, were restricted to New Brunswick and Perth Amboy. The people of New Jersey very much hated, and in several instances rose against the German troops of the British army, who had acted very harshly during their short ascendancy. Washington then retreated to Morristown to winter, and had his whole army inoculated for the small pox, which was a very important precaution, as that malignant disease had already broken out.

In the last month of 1776, the fleet of Sir Peter Parker went North and blockaded the American fleet in Narragansett Bay, so that it was unable to do any thing; and in the Spring of

1777, General Tryon who had been the Royal Governor of New York, ravaged the southern shore of Connecticut, but did not escape a severe punishment for it from the Americans under General Wooster, who, however, lost his life in the cause. Colonel Meigs, an American officer, also performed a brilliant exploit, seizing a depôt of British stores at Sag Harbor, on the eastern end of Long Island.

The British had a grand plan, on their first taking possession of New York, of cutting off New England from the rest of the country, by making an attack upon the Americans on the Hudson, from both the Canada side and New York city at the same time. For this purpose General Burgoyne was sent from England, who arrived in Quebec in May, and his part was to go down through Lake Champlain, and along the Hudson to Albany, while his friend, Colonel St. Leger, was to go round by another route to the same place, and both were to meet General Clinton, who was to come up the Hudson from New York. Generals Schuyler and Arnold undertook to prevent the consummation of this scheme, and so far succeeded, that St. Leger was compelled to return to Montreal; but Burgoyne got possession of Crown Point, Ticonderoga, and Whitehall, then named Skeneborough, while the American Army, under Schuyler, retired to Saratoga. There Schuyler gave up his command to General Gates. Burgoyne, meantime, worked his way to Fort Edward, which Schuyler had left; and being in want of provisions, and hearing that some were stored at Bennington, he sent the German General Baum to take them. But Baum was met by General Stark, who killed him and defeated his party, which, being reinforced with 500 men, was defeated again, immediately afterwards, by Colonel Warner and the Green Mountain Boys. These were the battles of Bennington.

The British had Indians in their service, and just at this



time the murder of a Miss M'Crea, of Fort Edward, by some Indians, who were employed by a British officer, Capt. Jones, to aid her in eloping to him from her father's house, produced a great excitement, together with a general rising against the British by the people, who joined General Gates' army, that was thus made 5000. He therefore advanced as far as Stillwater, to meet Burgoyne, who had encamped at Saratoga; a bloody battle was fought at Stillwater, on the 19th, in which the Americans had the advantage; and, on the 7th of October, the Americans attacked the British at Saratoga, who in fifty minutes, gave way, losing their General Fraser. Kosciusko, the Pole, assisted the Americans in this battle. Ten days after, Burgoyne, seeing his own army diminishing, while that of the Americans was doubling and quadrupling, despaired of success, and surrendered 5762 men, 35 brass field pieces, and 5000 muskets; also promising for himself and army, to serve no more against the Americans, provided they should all be permitted to return to England free. On hearing of this surrender of Burgoyne's, the British left Ticonderoga and returned to Canada; and Clinton, who had sailed up the Hudson to meet him, returned to New York. So this great scheme of the British failed.

Lord Howe, in the mean time, was on an expedition to get possession of Philadelphia. He had sailed from New York, on the 23d of July; and in five weeks he entered the Chesapeake, and disembarked 1800 troops at the head of the bay; while Washington crossed the Delaware to oppose him, and encamped on the Brandywine. There the British attacked him, and Washington lost the battle of Brandywine, which he attributed to being misled by false intelligence. Lafayette was wounded in this battle; and General Pulaski, a Pole, distinguished himself. The British therefore succeeded in taking possession of Philadelphia and Germantown, Sept. 26, '77;

but the Congress had already left Philadelphia and adjourned to Lancaster. Washington attacked the British at Skippack creek, but failed of doing them much harm, a heavy fog having suddenly set in; and the Americans were also obliged, by Lord Howe, to give up Fort Mercer, which enabled the British fleet to go up the Delaware, and capture and burn the colonial shipping. Washington then retired to Valley Forge; and things looked very dark for the Americans, who were extremely poor; for their cause now looked so doubtful, that the paper money the Congress had issued, would not buy anything, even of their own people. At this time, too, there was a conspiracy against Washington, chiefly produced by the Irish General, Conway, who wished to get General Gates into the chief command. Washington took no notice of this, and Colonel Timothy Pickering, who was his private secretary, used to tell a beautiful story connected with this affair, which displays Washington's entirely disinterested patriotism. Washington and his secretary were living in a house upon the great northern road from Philadelphia; and they used to sit at work in the same room, which had windows commanding a view of the road for many miles. One day they saw in the far distance a courier with mail bags. They knew he must bring intelligence from the northern army, commanded by General Gates. Washington, having caught sight of him, stood at the window a long while, watching his approach in silence. When he came opposite the house, he signified, with much excitement, that Mr. Pickering should go out and bring in the saddle bags. He tore them open as soon as brought, and found the news of Burgoyne's surrender to Gates. Immediately he fell on his knees, clasped his hands, and looked up to heaven, in a transport of thanksgiving. Not a shadow of jealousy of General Gates marred the moment of piety and joy.

Mr. Pickering silently gazed, but with unforgetting sensibility, on this exhibition of pure and unselfish character. He knew that Washington was aware of the plan to give Gates the chief command, and, that this splendid success would give his rival an advantage. But the father of his country thought not of himself.

Washington was a person of little demonstrativeness of manner, and it is interesting to know, that on the few occasions when his feelings broke through all restraint, they were always of the noblest and most disinterested strain. In the year 1777, as has been said, Congress was greatly distressed for money. Their paper money always lost its value, when misfortunes suggested that the American cause would fail. In the early part of the year they had sent Benjamin Franklin, Silas Deane and Henry Laurens, to France, to try and borrow money, as well as to induce the French king to acknowledge the American Independence; and, on his first arrival, Franklin had interested the people of Paris so much, that Lafayette, who had already heard with enthusiasm of the battle of Bunker Hill, volunteered to come out at his own expense, together with several other French gentlemen.

In 1778, the good effect of this embassy to France was seen: an alliance was made against England, and a Minister appointed to America—M. Gerard, while Franklin remained, as American Minister Plenipotentiary in Europe, and succeeded in borrowing some millions of money of France and Holland.

The news of the surrender of Burgoyne, and the exploits of the American privateers, who took two hundred British vessels this year, suggested to the English the desirableness of making peace, and they sent over three secret agents—not to treat, but to intrigue. One of them, Mr. Johnstone, offered

General Reed £10,000 bribe, to which he replied, "I am not worth purchasing, but, such as I am, the King of England is not rich enough to buy me."

On the 18th of June (1778), the British army evacuated Philadelphia, being starved out by the surrounding people. Immediately, Washington quitted Valley Forge, and going to meet it, killed seven hundred British, with a small loss.

In the same month, a French fleet arrived, which Washington directed against the British who had possession of Newport. General Sullivan, with 10,000 troops, was ordered to co-operate with the fleet there; but Count D'Estaing went off in pursuit of Lord Howe, who lured him off intentionally, and the British attacked Gen. Sullivan on Quaker Hill, north of Newport. Lafayette said that this was the best fought battle of the revolution, but Sullivan lost it.

The famous massacre of Wyoming, by the Indians, led on by Brandt, happened this year. Campbell has immortalized this bloody affair, in his poem of "Gertrude of Wyoming."

The British, in the last of 1778, had determined to see what they could do in the far south. Sir Henry Clinton, who had superseded Lord Howe at Philadelphia, had, before the army left there, sent Colonel Campbell to attack Savannah, which, being unprepared, was taken.

Early in 1779, the whole of Georgia was overrun by the British, whom the Tories of the State joined in large numbers. Once these Tories were defeated by Colonel Pickens, near Augusta; but the British were successful in several encounters. Their general, Prevost, defeated General Ashe at Briar Creek, and, going into South Carolina, he also defeated General Moultrie, at Black Swamp and Purysburg, and laid siege to General Lincoln, in Charleston; but Governor Rutledge and General Lincoln succeeded in defending the city for that time.



This same month of May, 1779, Sir Henry Clinton sent Gen. Matthews, with two thousand men, to Virginia, who burned Norfolk and some other towns, and then returned to New York. Clinton also took Stony and Verplank Points, on the Hudson, but lost Stony Point immediately afterward, as it was re-captured by General Wayne. It was, however, dismantled by the Americans, that neither party might have it to defend. The south of Connecticut was also ravaged by General Tryon, for the second time, who burnt Fairfield, Norwalk, and Greenwich. The Americans also sustained the loss of a great battle at Savannah, where the French count, D'Estaing, and the American general, Lincoln, had combined to bombard the British. The French lost 700, the Americans 400 men, in this action, and Count Pulaski fell. Thus the war seemed to go against the Americans in 1779; but General Sullivan had gone upon the Susquehanna, in August, and punished the tories and Indians, who had made the massacre of Wyoming the year before. (He had 3,000 troops, and General James Clinton joined him with 1,600 more.) On the coast of Scotland, also, Paul Jones attacked a fleet of British merchant ships, under convoy of Captain Pearson, and gained a great victory.

In 1780, General Lincoln, at Charleston, S. C., was disastrously besieged by Sir Henry Clinton; on the 14th of April, a company of Americans was defeated at Monk's Corner; on the 7th of April, Fort Moultrie was given up; and on the 12th of May, General Lincoln was forced to surrender his army, with four hundred cannon and four frigates. The British then proceeded to conquer South Carolina, which was done mainly by Colonel Tarleton, who was frightfully ferocious, especially at a defeat of the Americans at Waxhaw, where he killed even those who laid down their arms.

Having conquered South Carolina, where a great many

planters had joined the British side, Sir Henry Clinton left the Southern army to Lord Cornwallis, and returned to New York. But the British attempt to force all the Americans of Georgia and the Carolinas to take up arms against their countrymen, was an unwise exaction, which rekindled the spirit of independence there. The Southern women are said to have been eminently patriotic at this time.

In July 10th, 1780, 6,000 French soldiers arrived in America, under the command of Count Rochambeau. This timely assistance had been procured by Lafayette, who had gone to France for the purpose : and now, by his influence, these French auxiliaries ranged themselves peaceably under the command of General Washington. The patriots of the Carolinas were led by Colonels Sumpter and Marion ; Baron de Kalb went from Maryland to assist them, and General Gates took the command of the whole. Sumpter destroyed a British regiment that was defending Hanging Rock ; but the great battle was at Camden, South Carolina, where Lords Rawdon and Cornwallis defeated the Americans, mortally wounding De Kalb.

The Americans lost in the battle of Camden, five times as many as the British. It was computed at 2,000. General Gates and Sumpter then retired to North Carolina, where Col. Tarleton did them much mischief, especially at Fishing Creek and afterwards at Blacklock ; at the last place Sumpter was so dangerously wounded, that his company was disbanded. But at King's Mountain the British Colonel Ferguson was killed, and his party defeated by the Carolinians under Campbell and Shelby. In the last of the year General Greene superseded Gates in the army of the South.

This year was made the most painfully memorable in the war, by the treason of Benedict Arnold, who had begun so bravely five years before ; and by the execution of Major Andre.

Arnold was a person of no moral principle. A high liver and gamester, he became overwhelmed in debt, and made dishonest charges in his army accounts, which were therefore disallowed; and when this produced disrespectful language on his part, he was tried and condemned to be reprimanded. Mortification, revenge, and the need of money combined to overwhelm and destroy all conscience and sense of honor; and he offered to Sir Henry Clinton, for the sum of 10,000 pounds and a commission in the British army, to betray West Point, of which he had the command. Sir Henry Clinton sent his aide-de-camp, Major Andre, to accept these terms, and concert the betrayal of the Americans. They met near Stony Point; but on Major Andre's return, he was surprised by three American soldiers, whom in the dark, and by their giving the English pass-word, he mistook for his own party. When he discovered that he had betrayed himself, he endeavored to bribe them to let him off; but they were true to their country, and examining him, they found Arnold's letters to Sir Henry Clinton, in his boots. The names of these men were John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wert. They conducted Andre to Col. Jameson at Peekskill, who inconsiderately allowed him to write to Arnold, who being thus warned, seized a boat and escaped. A command was given to Arnold in the British army, and he was sent to Virginia, where he laid waste his own country with seeming joy. He was made a Brigadier-general and had 1,600 men.

But Major Andre had a tragical fate. By the laws of war, his life was forfeited. He had a trial by a court martial, and was condemned to be hanged as a spy. Everybody pitied him, and Washington made a strong effort in secret to save him, by attempting to get possession of Arnold's person—the brave and self-sacrificing Champ, an American sergeant, being induced to feign desertion into the British army, in order to



bring it about. The plan of taking the traitor failed, and Champ, who was not suspected by the British, was put into their fleet with Arnold's detachment to Virginia, and could not escape for some time. Meanwhile Major Andre suffered death, and the guilty Arnold saved his ignoble life to be despised by all parties.

The American Commanders had infinite difficulties with the rank and file, whether militia, or enlisted soldiers, from want of means to pay them. On the first day of January, 1781, the distress of the unpaid troops, came to a crisis, and the Pennsylvanian line revolted; and soon after the troops of New Jersey did the same. The latter were put down by Washington's decision, who marched against them. Sir Henry Clinton, hearing of the difficulties, sent emissaries to the Pennsylvanians, making them tempting offers. The Congress, however, though driven almost to the last extremity, did not despair. They had already directed their agents in Europe to borrow money of France, Spain, and Holland; and had obtained between two and three millions of dollars. They, therefore, promised the Pennsylvanian mutineers an immediate supply of clothing, and an early payment of their debt to them; and at that they were pacified, and Sir Henry Clinton's emissaries were delivered up, who were immediately hanged. Robert Morris of Philadelphia, at this time met the general distress, by nobly pledging his own fortune and credit; (an example which many others followed).

In 1781, the Americans began to have some success in the South. The terrible Tarleton was defeated in the battle of the Cowpens, by Col. Morgan, whom Lord Cornwallis pursued, but did not come up with, until he had been joined by General Greene, and afterwards by General Huger; and on the 15th of March; the American Army of 4,400 took a post at the Guildford Court House, and gained a battle, though Corn-



wallis retreated in order, and went into Virginia, to assist Arnold in subduing that State.

Greene, meanwhile, turned South, towards Lord Rawdon's army, which was at Camden, and entrenched himself about a mile off, where he came very near defeating the British; but did, in the end, find himself obliged to retreat a few miles. The British however, lost much ground by the rising of the people against them; and Marion, Sumpter and Lee took some forts, and nearly a thousand prisoners. Little was done on either side during the hot months of June, July, and August; but on the 8th of September, General Greene attacked the British at Eutaw Springs. It was a terrible battle, and General Greene took 500 prisoners. This battle recovered South Carolina to the Americans, except Charleston, where Colonel Stuart, who had succeeded Lord Rawdon, retired, with the British Army and remained inactive till the end of the war. In the meanwhile, Arnold and Lord Cornwallis were ravaging Virginia, opposed by Lafayette, who, however, had not a sufficient army for the purpose. But fortunately Cornwallis was called off by Sir Henry Clinton, to defend New York, which Washington appeared to be about to attack; and in order to go easily to him, at any moment, he fortified his camp at the mouth of York river, in Yorktown, or Chesapeake bay. But Washington had only made a feint of attacking New York, in order to keep Sir Henry Clinton there, on the alert; and he marched his army directly towards Yorktown, where he was joined by the 7000 French troops under Lafayette, while the French fleet entered the Bay, preventing any water communication between Lord Cornwallis and Sir Henry Clinton.

Meanwhile Arnold had gone from Virginia to New York, and Clinton sent him to ravage Connecticut, which he did with a perfectly Indian cruelty, His hope was, to divert the

American army from Yorktown. But this was not effected; the Americans besieged the British there, and with the help of the French, took two redoubts. In ten days from the beginning of the siege, Cornwallis despaired. After having made one attempt to escape across the river, which was made fruitless by a storm, he surrendered 7000 men and 60 cannon to the Americans, and two frigates and 20 vessels to the French, on condition that one sloop should pass to New York, with such persons on board as he should select.

This was the last battle of the American Revolutionary War. It took place October 17th, 1781. Lafayette, who had largely contributed to the success of the battle of Yorktown, immediately returned to France.

But the armies were not disbanded. The year 1782 was taken up in settling the preliminaries of peace, which was negotiated, on the part of the United States, by John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and Henry Laurens. On the 19th of April, 1783, the 8th anniversary of the battle of Lexington, a cessation of hostilities was proclaimed in America; and on the 3d of September, the peace of Paris was signed.

The terms of this treaty were, that the United States was to have all the territory east of the Mississippi, excepting Florida, which was confirmed to Spain. Before the year 1783 closed, the British troops left the country; New York and Charleston, South Carolina, being the last places of their sojourn.

Washington bade adieu to the army on December 4th and on December 23d appeared before Congress and resigned his commission.

This bird's eye view of the action of the Revolutionary war, leaves of course a great deal unsaid. It should be kept in mind that during the five years of actual hostilities, a vast

deal transpired of which no word has been said, and which throws great light upon the characters of those engaged. It is the first war on human record for the privilege of self-government by the masses. There must be many more such wars probably, before the nations of the world can be started upon their full career of self-development; and as we look upon them, and their chequered character, we must not forget that there were dark moral passages in our war, jealousies, treasons, meanness, selfishness; and that we did not triumph without the aid of foreign money, foreign troops, and foreign recognition of our Independence. We had also the advantage of being divided by a broad ocean from our enemy.

Our greatest advantage, of a personal character, was the transcendant wisdom and virtue of Washington, and the confidence he inspired, a confidence that was very unlike the kind of enthusiasm which generally has attended a great military leader. Yet he too suffered from misapprehension, and did not escape calumny! His *Life* by Irving, and his *Life and Papers* by Sparks, should be studied by all Americans.

The population of the United Colonies at the beginning of the War of Independence, was roughly estimated at 3,000,000, one-tenth of whom, 300,000, were actually engaged in battle: and one-tenth of those engaged, 30,000, perished. The British, also, lost 29,000 men out of 150,000 engaged, and had 8,000 taken prisoners, while they only took 5,000 American prisoners.

The cost of the war to the Americans, was \$135,000,000, of which \$8,000,000 was to be paid to foreign powers at its close, \$6,000,000 to France, \$2,000,000 to Holland.

The Congress of the confederation had issued paper money, which, in consequence of depreciation in value, reached the figure of \$350,000,000.

At the close of the war the discharge of the foreign debt, together with a domestic one of \$30,000,000, principally due to the officers and soldiers of the Revolution, rested upon the Congress of the Confederation.

### LESSON XXIII.—AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

Where and why did the voice of organized resistance to England burst out in America? What was the occasion? Why was it especially exasperating that they should be called on to pay the expenses of the war? What waked into consciousness their political self-respect? On what ground did they resist? What developed our fierce democracy? What was the *trick* of the Stamp Act? What did the people immediately do? What did Patrick Henry do? Where was the first Continental Congress convened, and what did it do? What showed that all this was not the action of a few leaders, or States, but national? What defence did the Americans have in the House of Commons? Had it any in the House of Lords? What decision came from all these quarters? Was the Stamp Act repealed? What did Charles Townsend do, (and why) two years after? With what question did the Colonies meet his cunning pretext? How was Boston punished for its resistance? What can you tell about "the Boston Massacre?" What act of magnanimity justified the spirit of popular resistance? What did Parliament do on hearing of this? Was that satisfactory? What did the Colonies do about the tea-ships which the East India Company sent out? What did Lord North do to punish this? Why was General Gage made Governor of Massachusetts? What new outrage of England was heard of the next day? What were the first consequences of the Boston Port bill? What was the constitution of the Continental Congress that convened at Philadel-



phia, Sept. 12th, 1774? What did it do immediately? What outrage consummated the Revolution? Had Massachusetts made any provision of a military character? What was the first military operation! What was the first occasion of calling out the "minute men," and how was it done? What happened at Concord? What happened at Lexington? What was the battle? When was it; and what called?

What did the Legislative Assemblies of other Colonies do? What was done, May 10th, on Lake Champlain? What on James River? What great national act was done on May 10th? What was the next act of Congress? What was done on June 19th? What had happened in Massachusetts, two days before? What occasioned the battle of Bunker Hill? Describe the whole affair? What was attempted in Canada; and with what success? What was done in Virginia? What military success had the British in 1775? In what books can all the details of the battles of the Revolution be found? Where did George Washington meet the army? Why did he not assault Boston? What proof is there that this was his reason? What was the condition of the army? What was Washington's hope? How large did his army become in the Spring of 1776? Why did he fortify Dorchester Heights? What effect had it on the British? When?

Why did Washington leave Boston for New York in April? Who had preceded him thither? Where did Sir Henry Clinton go with the English fleet? What other fleet did he meet? What place did they attack? What was their success? Tell all about the battle of Fort Moultrie. Where did all the British forces concentrate themselves, July 12th? What were they?

What great event had taken place eight days before? Who proposed it? Who drafted it? Who signed it? What prophecy did John Adams make that day? What prelimi-

nary did Lord Howe make to his attack on New York? and with what result? Where did the British army land? What do you remember of the battle of Brooklyn? What losses did Washington sustain immediately afterward? Where then did he go? What possibility did he speak of? What discouragements were there? What successes did Lord Cornwallis have? What did Washington suddenly determine to do? What do you remember of the battle of Trenton? What victory did he have on the 1st of January, 1777? What do you remember of the battle of Princeton? What successes followed this? Why did the people of New Jersey rise against the British? Where did Washington go to winter? Where was the American fleet all this time? What exploits were there in Connecticut and on Long Island, in the early part of 1777? What was the military plan of the British this year? What part had General Burgoyne to take? What, St. Leger? What, Sir Henry Clinton? How did Generals Schuyler and Arnold interfere with this? What did Burgoyne do while Schuyler retired to Saratoga? What do you remember of the battles of Bennington? What circumstances occurred that contributed to the increase of General Gates' army? What was his first battle? What happened on the 7th of October? What distinguished foreigner was chief engineer in the American army at this time? When and what was Burgoyne's surrender? What were the consequences of this on the great scheme of the British? Meantime what had Lord Howe undertaken to do? What do you remember of the battle of the Brandywine? What great foreigners were in this battle? When did the British take possession of Philadelphia? Where did the American Congress go? What do you remember of the battle of Skippack creek? What losses did the Americans have then? Where did Washington go? What were the American prospects and difficulties? What conspiracy

existed against Washington? What beautiful story did Colonel Pickering tell of Washington, at this time, which shows his superiority to ambitious intrigues?

What had Congress done, in the early part of the year 1777, to raise money, &c.? With what effect? When were the best effects of this embassy seen? What were they? What suggested to the British to intrigue for peace? How did they do it? With what effect? Why did the British abandon Philadelphia? What battle ensued on Washington's quitting Valley Forge? What order did Washington give to the French fleet which arrived in June, 1778? What do you remember of the battle of Quaker Hill? What of the massacre of Wyoming? What did the British do in the far South this year, 1778? What did the British do in Georgia, in the early part of 1779? Where did Colonel Pickens defeat the tories? What victories did the British general, Prevost, have? In what did he fail? What mischief did the British do in Virginia at the same time? What successes did Clinton himself have? What did General Wayne do at Stony Point? What was done in Connecticut by General Tryon? What do you remember of the battle of Savannah? What had General Sullivan done in August on the Susquehanna? What were his forces? What had been done on the coast of Scotland? What disasters had General Lincoln, in South Carolina, in 1780? Who conquered South Carolina, and in what manner? What aid had the British received? With whom did Clinton leave South Carolina, when he returned to New York? What rekindled the spirit of independence in the South? What reinforcement to the Americans came from Europe in July? How was it procured? Who led the patriots of South Carolina? What other generals joined them? What do you remember of the battle of Hanging Rock? What, of the battle

of Camden? Where did Generals Gates and Sumner then go? What happened at Fishing Creek? and at Blacklock? and at King's Mountain? Who took the command of the army at the South the last of this year? What do you remember of the affair of Arnold's treason? What attempt did Washington make, in order to save Andre? Who were the men who searched Andre? What reward did Arnold receive from the British? Where was he sent, and what did he do?

What caused a revolt of the American troops in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, in 1781? How did Congress get money? What generous thing did Robert Morris, of Philadelphia, do? What successes did the Americans now have in the South, at Cowpens? at Guildford Meeting-House? Where did Lord Cornwallis then go? How did the British lose ground in South Carolina? Did General Greene defeat Lord Rawdon at Camden? How did he succeed at Eutaw Springs, and with what general effect? Who was opposing Lord Cornwallis and Arnold in Virginia, meanwhile? How came Cornwallis to be called off? Why did he fortify himself at Yorktown? How did Washington manœuvre? and how was Washington reinforced at Yorktown? Where was Arnold sent? What was the hope of the British from this movement? What did the Americans do at Yorktown, and with what effect? What did Cornwallis do? What were the conditions of the surrender? When did this last battle of the Revolutionary war take place? Were the armies disbanded? How was the year 1782 spent? When was the cessation of hostilities proclaimed? When was the peace signed at Paris? What were the terms of it? What did Washington do on December 4th, and 8th? What chequered the moral character of this contest during its progress? Did we triumph altogether by our own prowess and resources?



What was our greatest personal advantage? Did he ever suffer obloquy and a want of confidence? Where can his life and character be studied?

What was the population of the colonies when the war began? How many were engaged in it? How many of these perished? How many did the British lose? How many prisoners were taken on both sides?

What was the cost of the war? What was the debt to foreign powers at the close of the war? How much paper money had been issued? Who was to pay these debts?

#### THE FEDERAL UNION—1787-9.

The peculiarity of the history of the United States is, that it is a history of political discovery and experiment; and therefore it is nearly impossible to give it attractions for the imagination of very young students. But we do what we can, as the public school law of most of the States requires that the historical education of the pupils shall begin with it. American history, as has been intimated before, is a subject for the mature mind, because it turns on principles, and not on personal will; while all previous history is a series of biographies of remarkable men, who have undertaken, more or less, to farm out the world for their own families. But all individualities of persons are swallowed up in that of the nationality which inspires the Federal Union of the United States of America.

There are two elements in a nation's prosperity: one, the principle of its life; the other, its material wealth. The principle of life in America, is, the LIBERTY TO DISCOVER AND OBEY, forevermore, that constitution and those laws of society which legitimately grow out of the destiny God has given to Humanity—a destiny stated with terseness in the first sen-

tence of the Declaration of American Independence. Any material advantage which violates this liberty will be refused by the true American, as was frequently done at the period of the Revolution. With this idea in the mind, the Constitution of the Federal Union, and the administration of each President, should be studied and judged by reason and conscience.

In order to understand the Union, it is, in the first place, indispensable to remember, that the thirteen States which had confederated to throw off the oppressive government of a common mother country, were, in a legal point of view, as completely independent sovereignties, with respect to each other, as the several nations of Europe. Each had enjoyed an independent development and legislation, as has been shown; and no one had the smallest right to exercise any authority over any other.

It is true, that once or twice in the course of their history, two or three of them had joined together for some special purpose. The New England colonies united in 1643, and again in 1690, against the Indians. And as soon as difficulties between the colonies and mother country grew up, on the extent of her parliamentary power, Otis, Franklin, and others, began to say that a union must take place, loyalty to which, as a nationality, would supersede the filial sentiment to Great Britain. But even when the confederation for the war was proposed by Massachusetts, it was debated, and not acceded to at once, except by South Carolina. While the war was going on, the confederation empowered the Congress to assess all the expenses growing out of the war, upon the several States, in proportion to their resources and population; (and then it was that the slaves were reckoned only as three-fifths of their actual number, at the earnest instance of the South, who spoke of them rather as a burden than as an element of strength);

also, to deal as one nation with foreign nations, making alliance, and borrowing money for all the States as one. But difficulties arose, when fluctuation of fortune made the paper currency depreciate; as Congress had then no basis of power to enforce its decrees, except martial law, which it was necessary to exercise with prudence, especially outside the camp. Difficulties multiplied during the time when negotiations for peace were pending, for then the States began to realize the impoverishment produced by the war. Pecuniary credit is the measure of a permanent power. Congress had none. It could recommend to the several States to pay their quotas of the interest money due on the public debt, but their legislatures independently decided whether or not to accept these recommendations. The resources of the States for payment were dependent on the development of the same by trade, and the trade required regulating laws. The material interest of each State was really, in the long run, the interest of every other. But material interests are blind to general interests, and mutually destructive; so that laws preventing individual States from ruining each other, were requisite. The refusal to pay the interest on the public debt was really, in the main, from want of means. In Massachusetts, the State legislature laid taxes for the purpose, which produced Shay's rebellion, and it took a large military force to put it down. Happily, a timely energy, mixed with clemency to the leaders, who were at first condemned to death, but subsequently pardoned, discouraged similar movements elsewhere.

But a moment's consideration will show that, with the common responsibility of an immense foreign and domestic debt, to be divided in a manner satisfactory to all; with an immense extent of unchartered territory, subject to the conflicting claims of all; with unadjusted boundaries; with an army disbanded, without being paid; and finally, with the possibility

of the States making conflicting laws for trade and other purposes, there existed all the danger and causes of war between these several independent sovereignties, that had taken effect for ages in the old continent, deluging it with blood, and where matters were still only settled by the right of the strongest—a settlement which is only a suppressed war *status*—ever ready to break out into open conflict. Was this “tragedy of ages” to be acted over again on this side of the Atlantic? The wise and noble men of all the States said, “No! the confederation must be preserved.” But the constitution of it was plainly too weak. The question had already arisen of raising an army to compel refractory States to abide by their pecuniary engagements, and there were threatenings of war between some of the States on the question of territory. Yet a common enthusiasm for freedom to govern themselves, had united the States in war; a common sentiment of patriotism had grown strong by their union in suffering; the blood of almost every State had watered the soil of nearly every other; their general relations with foreign countries were the same; a general organization of the laws of industry and commerce would multiply the resources of each State by those of every other. Could the plan of a constitutional union, which would make all strong with the strength of each, fail to present itself to reason and humanity?

An army is always inclined to a monarchical organization. A conspiracy had arisen in 1782 among some of the officers to consolidate the States, and an offer was made to Washington of the supreme power. The proposition met with a withering rebuke from that true republican—

“Who felt a grandeur that disdained a crown,”

and, with the statesmen with whom he was in correspondence, Washington himself conceived, as early as 1781,\* that there

\* See letter to Mr. Pendleton in Madison Papers, Vol 1.



might be a general government that should be representative, and whose officers should be elective, which should be sovereign for certain purposes, to be specified in a written constitution, and yet should leave each State sovereign within its own territory, with respect to every thing else than what was so specified.

After six years of vain experimenting with the poverty-struck Congress of the confederation, a constitutional convention was called, which met in Philadelphia, in 1787.

The world has never yet seen a grander sight, than the convention of those thirteen independent sovereignties, in earnest deliberation, with a sincere purpose to unite themselves in a manner so just, as to preserve internal and relative independance, for individual development on the one hand; but on the other, to preclude war with each other forever, and coöperate to recommend Republican Government to mankind, by successfully prosecuting all the legitimate means of national growth and aggrandizement. Washington was unanimously elected its President; and, without claiming for it absolute perfection, it must be agreed, that no purer, juster, wiser, political assembly had ever met on earth. It convened the same year that the assembly of notables met in France. In comparing it with that, or even with the French Constituent assembly, we realize the vast difference between the antecedents and objects of the two deliberating bodies. A despotism which had corrupted social life for ages, was to be destroyed in France, and republicanism to be created out of its ruins, by human will and wit. In America, on the contrary, two hundred years of the growth of social virtue and happiness, in their turn growing out of liberty to worship God with individual integrity, that had been all that time struggled for, was to be conserved. The material out of which the Federal Republic was to be made (*e pluribus unum*, from

*many one*), were in themselves organized republics, which had had a century of practical experience, and contained models for the form and operation of the new government.

The debates of the Federal convention are fully reported by James Madison himself; whose introductory statement shows that he could comprehend the greatness of what was doing. The "Madison Papers" should be studied by all Americans, in order to understand the spirit in which the letter of the Constitution was indicted. For the information of those who wish to know precisely what passed on the subject of slavery and the compromises, reference may be made to Hildreth's History, chapter XXIX, where it is all also stated.

The Constitution of the Federal Government is too long a document to be inserted here, in its details. Its general features are as follows: There is firstly, a house of Representatives, elected by the people in their primary assemblies, every two years, every State having at least one representative, and no State having more than one for every thirty thousand inhabitants, at most. Secondly, there is a Senate, two senators from each State, to be so elected by the Legislatures of the States, that every two years, one third of the whole may be new members. They are however to be elected for a term of six years. These two bodies are to constitute one Legislature, which must meet at least once a year. Thirdly, the people choose colleges of Electors, by Districts, who elect a President and Vice President, once in four years. The Congress have power to regulate the trade with foreign nations and between the States; to make treaties with foreign nations; to declare war and peace; to collect revenue; to govern the United States Territories till they have population sufficient to be constituted sovereign States in Federal Union; to entirely govern the District of Columbia, where the Federal Government has its seat; but it has no power within the sover-

eign States, that is not expressly granted in the written Constitution.

The President has a limited right of veto on the acts of Congress; appoints his own cabinet, which at first consisted of three Secretaries,—of War, of State, of the Treasury. He also appoints the Attorney-General, and a Postmaster-General; the Custom House officers, and local Postmasters; and, with the advice of the Senate, the Foreign Ministers and Consuls, and the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. He himself is Commander-in-Chief of the United States army. The Judiciary is independent; because the judges retain office during good behavior.

Thus the American Constitution of Government, like the constitution of a human being, distributes the executive will, the deliberative judgment, and the moving passions, so that they may fairly keep each other in activity as well as in check. The people at the ballot box are the passion; the Congress is the deliberative judgment, the President is the executive will; the Judiciary is the conscience. Each State has a like distribution of human nature in its government. But as for men, so for nations, there is a Supreme Power of Love and Wisdom, that must purify passion, judgment, and will, or they will act on each other in a vicious circle, to the end of mutual corruption; and by an eternal decree GOD acts in men, only so far as He is intelligently worshipped. But unless God acts within our rulers *to will and to do*, blind passion will draw the national will and mind to serve merely selfish and material ends. Our Congress and executive will always preserve a precise ratio to the actual character of our people. The only hope of the Republic's progressive development, and healthy social condition, therefore, is, in the intelligence and virtue of the people: and these, in their turn, depend upon the religious humility which

becomes the sons of men, and the infinite aspiration which becomes the sons of God, neither of which any political or social organization can create, but which grows from individual consciousness of moral responsibility to God. The principle of Roger Williams, in 1636 a private opinion of one man, has now become the governing sentiment of the nation; the Church and State are recognized to belong to different spheres, each having its own independent laws of organization, like the body and soul; whose free interfusion, however, is health and happiness.

The Federal Constitution presupposes its human imperfection and capacity of improvement, organizing this reasonable humility and progressive aspiration into a provision for self-amendment.

It could not be hoped that there were no elements of evil within the States, or in their possible relations to each other, and to foreign nations, which might not work out, in the course of time, into the political plane. Provision was made, therefore, for constitutional changes, and for the impeachment of the Executive, and of members of Congress, for crime.

The epoch of the Convention planted the seed of two parties, both republican; one intent on defending the sovereignties of the States from encroachment, which was subsequently called the Democratic party; the other, more especially striving to give the necessary strength to the General Government, which was called the Federal party; and these names were retained long after those who bore them changed their relative positions; the first two administrations being conducted by the Federalists, the second two by the Democrats. Both parties were in the right in their general principles, and this was realized, after a quarter of a century, when it could be plainly seen that each party was a salutary check on the extremes of the other.



It is not parties that are dangerous to a free government. Honest parties watch each other, and correct each other's mistakes, as they follow each other in healthy alternation. But party spirit, that is, the headlong tendency which makes *partisans* sacrifice their conscience, and even their own opinion, to the formulas of their party, and especially to the *desire for office*, is, of all things, to be deprecated in the United States. It has become a fair question, whether the unlimited power of Executive appointment does not stimulate this selfish spirit too much.

But the only effective way of keeping party spirit down, is to recognize that there are Eternal Laws of Right and Wrong, before whose tribunal all the actions of nations, as well as of individual men, are to be brought, by inevitable Time.

The limit of a man's duty to his party, is his conscientious judgment upon its action; and it is absolutely necessary that every American should have so much intellectual and moral development, as to be able to judge his party, even though he may not control it. This fair moral and intellectual development can alone save multitudes from being the victims of self-seeking demagogues, who prove the worst of tyrants at last. And, to ensure this development, there must be freedom to Spiritual Religion, which is alone adequate to control the selfish passions, and keep the reason clear. Every American should make it a point to educate himself and his children, by all the experience of the past, with religious fidelity to reason and conscience, and to every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of God; because, just in proportion to his or her personal energy, every American affects his country's future, for good or for evil.

Benjamin Franklin expressed his regret, that our national ensign was the Eagle, because it is a bird of prey. The barn

yard fowl, which he playfully proposed to substitute, was still worse for the imagination, the *turkey* being the very emblem of mere material good.

The American Constitution, securing as it does, freedom to the people to legislate for their own homesteads, yet granting immunity to the religious element to organize from within, like the principle of vegetation, which never petrifies in its forms, yet never fails of form, deserves a better emblem. Why did he not think of the skylark, that builds his nest upon the solid ground, even in the humble grass, yet keeps his eye upon it, however he may screw the morning heavens in his upward flight, being always ready to drop into it at will, if danger assail it :—

“Type of the wise ; who soar, but never roam,  
True to the kindred points of Heaven and Home.”

For, in the attainment by individual Americans of these two objects—Heaven and a pure and virtuous Home—it might be hoped that every social, political, and ecclesiastical evil would be gradually worked off the National Life.

And, indeed, the eagle is not merely a bird of prey ; it has the splendid characteristic of gazing upon the sun, as no other created eye can do. In this may it characterize the American Republic, which, unlike the Roman, shall conquer, not as a bird of prey, but by having for its ideal object the original light of Eternal Law !

#### LESSON XXIV.

What is the peculiarity of the history of the United States, after the Revolution ? What are the elements of every Nation's prosperity ? What is the principle of life in America ? What is necessary to remember, in order to understand the Federal Union ? How had this mutual independence happen-

ed? Had the Colonies ever united? When did it appear to Otis, Franklin, and others, that a union should take place? Was this immediately acceded to, for the war merely? What powers had the Congress of the Confederation? What difficulties arose, and why? When and how were these difficulties multiplied? What power had the Congress, after the peace? What difficulties did it meet with then? What causes of war existed? What had been the effect of similar causes in the Old World? Was this tragedy of ages to be acted over again on this side of the Atlantic? What was the defect of the Congress of the Confederation? What sympathies and similar relations suggested a union to reason and humanity? What was the action of the army at this juncture, and with what effect? When and where did the Constituent Convention assemble? What was the character of that convention? How did it compare, in antecedents and objects, with the French Constituent Assembly? What advantages had America, for a Federal Republican government? Who reported the debates of the Federal convention? Where may a summary of them be found? Why should the "Madison Papers" be studied?

What are the general features of the Federal Constitution of government? What powers has the Congress? What powers has the President? How does the American Constitution distribute human nature in the government? and why? What can prevent these finite powers from acting in a vicious circle, to the end of mutual corruption?

How far can we believe the Supreme Being acts in men? What if He do not act in our rulers "to will and to do?" What must the character of our Congress and Executive always be? What then is the hope of the Republic? On what do the intelligence and virtue of the people depend? On what does humility and aspiration depend? What was the princi-

ple of Roger Williams, that was now realized on the political plane by the nation? What ideas are embodied in the provisions of the constitution for self-amendment? Are the officers of government impeachable? What parties took root in this epoch? Which was right? Are parties of any use? What is party spirit? How can this be kept down? What is the limit of a man's duty to his party? What is necessary in order to a man's being able to judge his party? Why is it necessary for an American especially? How can a fair moral and intellectual development be ensured? Why? How should every American educate himself and his children? Why? What objection did Benjamin Franklin make to our national ensign? What objection is there to what he proposed? Why does the American constitution deserve for its emblem, a

"Type of the wise ;—who soar but never roam,  
True to the kindred points of Heaven and Home?"

What is this *type*? Why? How might every social, political, and ecclesiastical evil, be worked off the American national life in the course of time?

What characteristic of the eagle makes it an emblem of the American Ideal? How can the nation do justice to it?

### LESSON XXV.—HISTORY OF THE UNION.

Why does the history of the United States become so rich, after the Union? What would be a good plan of studying its constitutional history? How do the States, and Union, severally contribute to the general welfare and character of the nation? What model has been presented for the future development of the nation, by some theoretical writers? To what principle, is it to be hoped, that it will rigidly adhere? Why? How can the United States act, so as to preclude the occasion



for military conquest? With what grand result? Did the Fathers of the Union overrate the constitution? What was the majority for acceptance?\*

What was done, at first, to recommend it to the people's imagination?

### HISTORY OF THE UNION.

From this time, the history of the United States becomes immensely rich for the education of a statesman; because it is *manifold*; the Union, as the nation, having a certain individuality not to be confounded with that of the States, each of which has a history of its own. It would be a very good plan to have the particular constitution of each State, and that of the Federal Union, in a comparative view, as no two are precisely alike in the proportions of their several powers, which more or less balance each other; and then again, to consider these, with reference to the social prosperity and character, which has been developed under each, respectively.

The States, as such, protect and foster the internal sources of material wealth, and social and moral good, by institutions of education and industry, according to local opportunities and necessities. The Union counteracts, (or it is its idea to do so) the narrowness, selfishness, and onesidedness, which has hitherto been apt to be consecrated by patriotic feeling; and imparts to this sentiment, a consideration for the interests of others, which bids fair to make it, at last, nearly commensurate with Christian charity.

There has been a book written, called the New Rome, by two theoretical Germans, which undertakes to show that the United States is to repeat, upon a gigantic scale, the expe-

\* The acceptance had not two thirds majority. It was 719 votes to 441 and three States did not vote, nor accept till afterward.

rience of that old conqueror of the world. But it is to be hoped that our nation, instead of taking a monster despotism for its model, will live out the principle of Jesus Christ; who, when the devil took him up into a high mountain, and showed him all the kingdoms of the world, and the glory of them, and said: "All these things I will give unto you, if you will fall down and worship me,"—replied: "Get thee behind me Satan; thou shalt worship the Lord thy God, and him only shalt thou serve!" Such a temptation already dawns on the United States;—shall it not centre itself on such a principle? Power which does not come from the right source—Eternal Justice—involves its own principle of decay. Let the United States be true to its own Declaration of Human Rights, discovering and obeying, as its constitution gives it LIBERTY to do, the true destiny of Humanity, and progressively making its political and social institutions conform to human wants, and the nations will not wait to be conquered, but will come and solicit annexation, and the modern Republic will turn out as much greater than Rome, as Christianity is truer than Paganism!

The Fathers of the Union did not, by any means, overrate, they rather underrated the constitution they had made; and signed it with more or less doubt. Nor was it accepted by the States at once, nor without special stress being laid upon its principle of self-amendment. Its warmest friends felt that every thing must be done to make it take hold of the people's imagination; and Mr. Hildreth, in the 1st Chapter of his fourth volume, has given an elaborate account of the Festival which attended its Inauguration in Philadelphia and several States.\*

\* The teacher can, in all cases, recommend those of the class who are able, to look out the references to books made in the text; and when the questions have been answered, call for voluntary contributions; which will awaken the love and habit of research.

## WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The History of the Union began with the unanimous election of George Washington, as its first President. Nothing short of his intense interest in the Federal Union, could have allured him from his rustic retreat on Mount Vernon. He accepted no salary, as he had taken no pay for his services during the war. His administration, of which Judge Marshall has given the History, in the last volume of his Life of Washington, is his own practical commentary on the constitution, so far as circumstances admitted of its being carried out.\* The high spirit of disinterestedness and impartiality with which it was conducted, is a model for all succeeding Presidents. He exercised the prerogatives of his office in the same high toned spirit. On one occasion, when a relative of his wife, who was dining at his table, asked for an office under government, suggesting that his personal connection was a circumstance in his favor, it is said that Washington, losing his accustomed self-command, in the extremity of his indignation—struck the table violently with his hand, and, in a voice of thunder demanded, what the gentleman had ever seen in him, to encourage him to make so insulting an insinuation as that, he would not allow nepotism, or anything but unquestionable qualification and merit, to influence his appointments?

Washington called to his cabinet, Thomas Jefferson as Secretary of State, Alexander Hamilton as Secretary of the Treasury, General Knox as Secretary of War. He also ap-

\* Washington Irving's Life of Washington bids fair to be a treasury for the imagination and heart of the American Student. But the volume of Marshall, above referred to, can never be surpassed, as a history of his *administration*. The materials for appreciation of Washington are remarkable, as Sparks has published all his papers.

pointed Edward Randolph, Attorney General, and John Jay, Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

One great concern of Washington was to recover the pecuniary credit of the country. The Foreign and Internal debt amounted to fifty-four millions, and the several States owed twenty-five millions beside. In concert with Hamilton, Washington proposed to the Congress of the Union, to assume the whole; and, after some dispute as to the Internal and State debts, this measure of policy and justice was adopted. Duties had been laid at once upon shipping, imports, &c., to raise a revenue; and the Bank of North America was incorporated in 1791, in which the government became a large stockholder.

In the same year, Vermont was admitted into the Union. This State had been settled since 1723, and its territory was claimed both by New York and New Hampshire; but its inhabitants had declared themselves an independent State in 1777, when they had organized, and from that time they had administered an independent government. The great impediment to Vermont's being received into the Union, was the claim of New York, which at length was bought off, for 30,000 dollars.

But already, in the year 1790, the Indian War in the north-west, had called for the intervention of the Federal Government. This war, originally instigated by the British, during the Revolutionary period, was believed, by the western settlers, to be still fomented by them, as they had not yet given up their northwestern posts, and refused to do so, until arrangements were made to secure to the British generally, means of collecting their debts within the borders of the States. Harmer was the first general sent by Washington against the Indians, and he met with nothing but disaster. In 1791, the Governor of the northwest territory, General St. Clair, made



an excursion 80 miles north, from Fort Washington (now Cincinnati), where he was defeated; and 600 men, out of his force of 2000, were killed: more would have fallen, but for the Indian avidity to plunder. The only real headway that was made against the Indians, in this war, was by the western settlers themselves; especially those of Kentucky, who had grown to be so powerful, that they proposed to separate themselves from Virginia, and become a State, and applied to be admitted into the Union. A very pleasant history of Kentucky, as well as of Virginia, and the other States, is to be found in Lippincott's Cabinet Library, giving the details of the settlements made by Boone and others. Boone went into Kentucky; and settled near Lexington, as early as the year 1775; and the early history of Kentucky consists of daring exploits of adventure with the Indians. After the peace of 1783, great efforts were made by the Spanish, to induce Kentucky to unite with them, or, at least, make an independent government. The bait they offered, was liberty to make New Orleans the place of deposit for their Merchandise. The whole history of this intrigue, which continued even after the Union, and whose object was to detach Kentucky, is given in the above mentioned volume. Also the history of the establishment of Transylvania University.

General Wayne became the Commander in the Indian War of 1794, and built Forts Recovery, Defiance, and Greenville. He gained a great victory over the Indians on the present site of the town of Waynesfield, laying waste their villages. But the Indian War was deeply affected by the treaty that Mr. Jay made with England, one article of which was, that the English should give up their hostile posts on the Indian frontier.

Mr. Jay's treaty was the most important thing which happened in Washington's second term of administration. It is

said that, one day, when conversing upon its necessity, with his Cabinet and Mr. Jay in presence—Washington turned towards him and said, “Mr. Jay—you must go and negotiate this treaty.” There was at first a profound silence, and then Mr. Jay said, “You are aware, that in the present temper of the country, whoever negotiates this treaty *is sacrificed*.” Washington replied expressively—“Yes; and therefore it must be you, who shall do it.” Jay replied, “If you think it is best, I will go.” It is refreshing to think, that there are men, who are capable of sacrificing popularity and high office in the service of their country. One hardly knows which most to admire in this case, the noble confidence of Washington in his friends’ disinterestedness, or Mr. Jay’s magnanimity.

He went and made the treaty, assuring to the British recovery of their private debts in the States, and opening immense advantages upon the American commerce. On his return, he declined to resume the office of Chief Justice, and retired to a private life of dignity and beneficence, outliving obloquy, and dying in 1829, respected by all parties. In 1795, a treaty was made with the Indians, by which they ceded the country between the Ohio and Detroit and Mississippi rivers. The same year a treaty was made with the Spanish, securing the free navigation of the Mississippi, and making New Orleans a place of deposit; also, a treaty with the Barbary Powers, by which the American shipping was rendered secure from piracy in the Mediterranean Sea, though at the price of a constant tribute, in the form of presents to the Bashaws of the several cities.

There were some difficulties with France during Washington’s administration, which comprehended the most terrible years of the French Revolution. Its atrocities very much excited the prejudices of the Federal party against France, and

not unreasonably ; while the Democratic party, also, not without justice, were inclined to forgive a great deal to the principle of liberty, which was working in Europe at such fearful odds with internal corruption and external oppression. A disposition to assist the French Republicans in their efforts was a natural dictate of human sympathy and American gratitude. But Washington saw that the United States were too poor, and weak, and far off, to interfere at that moment in European struggles, and that the best thing that could be done for European liberty was to develop an American commonwealth by prosecuting the arts of peace—and thus give pattern to mankind of the creative power of the republican principle. He expressly stated, that by preserving neutrality then, the Federal Union might grow to the height of acting with effect for the liberty of other nations, in later periods. But Mr. Genet, who had come to America as French minister, and was received warmly by the people, acted in recklessness of these known views of Washington ; and undertook to fit out privateers from the American ports against Great Britain. He also induced the formation of Jacobin clubs all over the country, which were opposed in spirit to the neutral policy of the administration. Washington remonstrated with Mr. Genet in vain ; and at last he called upon the French Directory to recall their minister, which they did. M. Genet subsequently married an American lady, and settled in New York, as a peaceful American citizen.

## LESSON XXVI.

Was there a rival candidate to Washington for the Presidency ? What proof of his disinterestedness did he give on assuming the office ? What story is told of an office-seeker at his table ? What were his first appointments ? What plan

did he and Hamilton make to restore the credit of the country? What was the amount of debt assumed? What measures had been taken to secure a revenue? What bank was incorporated, and when? What State was received into the Union this year? What was the early history of Vermont? What was the impediment to its being received into the Union? How did it get rid of the New York claim?

What do you remember of the Indian War of the Northwest? its causes? What generals were sent by the Federal Government, in 1790 and 1791, and with what issue? Who were the most important opponents of the Indians! Who was the pioneer of Kentucky, and when? What is the character of its early history? What political intrigue had its theatre in Kentucky? What State claimed Kentucky for a long period? In what year was it admitted into the Union? What literary institution did it establish? What did General Wayne do in the Indian War in 1794? What great treaty helped to put an end to this war, by destroying its cause? Who made the commercial treaty with Great Britain? What story is told of his being appointed to this negotiation? What did his treaty bring about? When was an Indian treaty made? What other treaties were made that year? What difference of opinion existed in America about duty to the French Republic? How did Washington decide, and why? What do you remember about M. Genet's conduct? How did all this end?

#### JOHN ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION—1797.

When Washington declined reëlection for a third term (wishing to make a precedent of rotation in office of the presidency), there was a strongly contested election; John Adams being the candidate of the Federalists, and Thomas Jefferson



of the Democrats. The result was, the election of Adams as President, and of Jefferson as Vice-President.

The most important circumstance of Adams's administration was the culmination of the difficulties with France. The French Directory had been very angry at Jay's treaty of commerce with Great Britain, and had begun to seize and confiscate American goods in their ports; and they refused to receive Mr. Pinckney, the American minister, because he was a Federalist. Mr. Adams convened an extra session of Congress, and set forth these things. But the party which sympathized with France was so strong, that three envoys were sent out to attempt a peaceable issue. The Alien and Sedition laws were at this time passed by the Federal administration, and regarded by France, as well as by the Democratic party in America, as contradicting the American spirit of liberty; the one, enabling the President to order any foreigner out of the country; and the other, restricting the press. The French then ordered two of the American envoys back, because they would not act directly against Great Britain. This was deemed, by all parties, an intolerable insult. The country was immediately put into a state of defence; the treaty with France declared broken; a navy armed with powers to seize French vessels; and Washington accepted the command of the army. The war began and ended in 1798. It was entirely upon the sea. The French government then made overtures of peace, which was concluded with Bonaparte, not till the year 1800.

But in the year before, December 14th, 1799, Washington had died at Mount Vernon, of a sudden attack of croup. He was sixty-eight years of age. Congress adjourned at once, and the whole country put on mourning. The Independence of the United States, and their Federal Union, are his eulogy and monument; which every year grow in magnificence, as

they are more perfectly developed into their legitimate consequences.

The State of Tennessee was admitted to the Union during Mr. Adams' administration. It had been previously claimed by North Carolina, from which State settlements had been made in it before the war. In 1790, North Carolina ceded it to the United States, and it entered the Union in 1799.

In the year 1800, the seat of the Federal Government was removed from Philadelphia to the District of Columbia, a square of ten miles, situated on the Potomac, and ceded to the Federal Congress by the States of Virginia and Maryland. There the City of Washington had been in the process of building for ten years, upon a plan devised by the Father of the Country. The District of Columbia is under the jurisdiction of Congress alone.

Mr. Adams' term of administration is a very important one in the political history of the United States. But it affords little matter for such a compend as this, which must not enter into disquisitions upon political questions. Hildreth's history is a resource for mature students, who wish to know all the facts; he has given them, with iron impartiality, in his fifth volume.

The materials for the appreciation of Adams are ample; his own letters, and those of his wife, having been published by his grandson. Other letters, not intended for publication, have also come before the public; and we are made to see that there are great imperfections of character, which consist with a general usefulness, and learn to be charitable with respect to the characters of great men of our day. Adams was, with many great faults, an honest man, and therefore did his country service. His personality was egotistical and violent, without being selfish.

## LESSON XXVII.—ADAMS.

Was Adam's election contested? How did the difficulties with France culminate? What did Adams do at this crisis, and what was determined upon by Congress? What unpopular laws were now passed? What were they, and how regarded? What did the French now do which drove the Americans to war? What preparations were made? What was the war, and how long did it last? How was it closed? What took place December 14th, 1799? What is Washington's ever-growing monument? What new State was admitted to the Union the year of Washington's death? What had been its previous history? When was the seat of government removed to Washington? What can you tell of the origin and constitution of the District of Columbia? What books can be consulted to learn of Mr. Adams' political and personal career?

## GENERAL REVIEW OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

What State was founded before the Revolution in this century? What year? What States after the Revolution, and in what years? How many years was it from the Stamp Act to the battle of Lexington? [Look at the plate.] How many years of actual fighting were there? How many years of the century was the Federal Union in force? How, and when, is Washington's birth represented? How, and when, his first public employment? His death? Whose death is represented in 1726? in 1759? in 1769? in 1775? in 1780? in 1799? Whose birth in 1732? Whose and what deed in 1750? 1754? 1763? 1777? 1780? What treaty in 1713? 1748? 1763? 1769? 1778? 1794? What three treaties in 1795? What one in 1800? What was done by the British

in 1765? 1767! 1774? What by the Americans in 1773? What by the French and Americans in 1777? 1778? 1780? 1781? What misfortune happened to Indians in 1715? 1728? What happened in 1790? 1791! 1794? How and when is Lafayette's coming to assist America represented in 1777?

### JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

Thomas Jefferson, who had drafted the Declaration of Independence, succeeded to John Adams, as President, in the first year of the 19th century; and Aaron Burr was elected Vice-President. Jefferson availed himself of his prerogative of appointment, and made many official changes in favor of his party. These he seemed to feel himself compelled to justify by letters of explanation, really meant as an address to the people, giving his reasons for the several changes, which he declared to be other than partisan considerations. Just at this moment the two most unpopular acts of Mr. Adams' administration expired by limitation; viz., the Alien law, which had authorized the President to send out of the country any foreigner he might deem dangerous; and the Sedition law, which forbade libellous publications against the Government. All internal duties and direct taxes were also taken off. So that his administration began with good omens.

The next year, 1802, OHIO, which had been settled at Marietta, in 1788, was admitted into the Union. That same year the Spanish Governor of New Orleans closed that port against the United States, which was a violation of treaty. A proposition was at once made in Congress to take possession of Louisiana by violence. But, on investigation, it was found that it had been ceded to France, secretly, in 1800. The sympathies of Jefferson were strongly with France, and the United States were not at all disposed to go to war with Bonaparte,



who was then in the ascendant. Bonaparte also needed money, and France had suffered so much in the last century, from speculations in Louisiana lands, that the sale was not unpleasant to the nation. Jefferson proposed to buy off the French claims, and, in 1803, Bonaparte sold Louisiana for 15,000,000 dollars. It was immediately divided into two territories—Louisiana in the south, and Missouri, north of the Missouri river.

The history of Louisiana is a long chapter, which has a very different aspect from that of the Atlantic coast. We have already referred to Gayarre's romance of its history, which is an attractive book for the young; and maturer students of law and politics should make themselves acquainted with his histories of the Spanish and French dominations in Louisiana.

The Eastern States, especially the Federal party, opposed this annexation of territory, on account of its bringing upon the Anglo-Saxon race a mixture of French and Spanish character and laws. Besides, liberty for the Federal Union to buy new territory was not expressed in the Constitution; but the purchase secured the navigation of the Mississippi to the commerce of the Western States, and took from Kentucky its temptation to secede from the Union. On the whole, it very much increased Mr. Jefferson's popularity in the country.

In 1803, a war with Tripoli broke out. A treaty had existed with Tripoli since 1795, by virtue of which the Federal Union paid a large sum of money every year, in the form of presents, to secure the immunity of its trading vessels from piracy in the Mediterranean sea. But the Bashaw so insolently multiplied his demands, that, at last, the American government refused payment; whereupon the Bashaw declared war; and Commodore Preble, with a small squadron, was sent out to bombard Tripoli. The frigate Philadelphia, on

entering the harbor to reconnoitre, the last day of October, 1803, struck against a rock, and was taken by the Tripolitans; its officers, including Captain Bainbridge, being made prisoners of war, and its crew reduced to slavery. Commodore Preble bombarded Tripoli more than once, and gained a victory in open sea; but the most brilliant exploit was Lieut. Decatur's, who, on the 3d of February, 1804, under cover of the darkness, entered the harbor in a small schooner, went up to the side of the *Philadelphia*, leaped into it with some followers, drove into the sea and killed the Tripolitan crew, and set it on fire; and, although the battery and surrounding vessels kept up a heavy cannonade from the moment he was discovered, lost not a single man, and succeeded in escaping!

But the American Consul at Tunis, Mr. Eaton, attacked the Bashaw in another way. Finding that he had usurped the office he held, from his elder brother Hamet, he proffered the latter assistance to recover his rights. With seventy Americans, at whose head he put himself, he led Hamet and his followers, with some Arabs from Egypt that took Hamet's part, across the desert of Barca—a thousand miles—and took Derne, 650 miles east of Tripoli, on the frontier of the State, being met and supported at that point, by the United States squadron. Mr Eaton's plan was to put Hamet on the throne, and have an honorable treaty between Tripoli and the United States; and he seemed in a fair way of succeeding, when Mr. Lear, Consul at Algiers, with entire disregard of his plans and engagements to Hamet, renewed the old treaty with the Bashaw of Tripoli. Mr. Eaton came home to complain. Hamet and thirty followers were left in Sicily, and came near perishing for want. But the United States, to whom he appealed, sent him succour in money afterward. A very interesting account of this affair, is to be found in Spark's American Bio-

graphy, in the life of Eaton, by C. C. Felton; which also contains important evidence of the treason of Aaron Burr.

Aaron Burr had not been made Vice President in the second term of Jefferson's administration, the party having substituted George Clinton, of New York. Burr, who was very ambitious and talented, then became candidate for the chair of the government of New York. At this time, Alexander Hamilton openly denounced him in all companies, as a political profligate. Burr challenged him to a duel, and Hamilton fell. The event produced a deep sensation, and when Hamilton's friend and admirer, Dr. Nott, preached, in his funeral sermon, a denunciation of duelling, and did not excuse his accepting the challenge—the bold and independent word, combined with the public grief for the loss of so distinguished a servant of his country, did much to give a death-blow to the *prestige* for duelling, throughout the Northern States. Mr. Hildreth grows eloquent on the character of Hamilton. He says the country experienced a loss by it “second only to that of Washington. Hamilton possessed the same rare and lofty qualities, the same just balance of soul, with less, indeed, of Washington's severe simplicity and awe-inspiring presence, but with more of warmth, variety, ornament, and grace. If the Doric in architecture be taken as the symbol of Washington's character, Hamilton's belonged to the same grand style as developed in the Corinthian—if less impressive, more winning. If we add Jay for the Ionic, we have a trio not to be matched; in fact, not to be approached in our history, if, indeed, in any other.—Of earth-born Titans, as terrible as great; now angels, and now toads and serpents, there are every where enough. Of the serene and benign sons of the celestial gods how few at any time have walked upon the earth!” Hamilton was killed in 1804; and in 1807, Burr was accused of a conspiracy, whose



object was to make an independent Empire beyond the Alleghanies. He was arrested in 1807, and tried for treason before Judge Marshall; but the evidence was not considered sufficient to condemn him. Much information concerning Burr's operations, can be found in the history of Kentucky, published in Lippincott's Cabinet Library, to which reference has already been made. Also, in Hildreth, Chapter XIX.

The commerce of America, meanwhile, was greatly flourishing; for, its neutrality with respect to European wars, gave it the carrying trade of the world for the time. But it now began to suffer, England having declared the Continent from the Elbe to Brest in blockade; and Bonaparte, in retaliation, declaring all the British Islands so; for American trading vessels were captured by both parties. Cause of war with England, also arose from the British ship *Leopold's* firing into the American frigate *Chesapeake*, because it refused to give up four men, said to be British deserters, but who were proved to be American citizens, who had been impressed by the British. The claim of the British to a *right of search* into American vessels, was thus brought up; and Jefferson made a proclamation, that no British vessels should enter United States harbors, till reparation was made for past outrages, and the obnoxious claim given up. The same year, the British issued the famous "Orders in Council," which prohibited all nations trading with France and her allies; and Bonaparte retaliated, with his "Milan Decrees," forbidding trade with Great Britain and her allies. Again American vessels were captured on both sides. In this emergency, Jefferson induced Congress to decree an embargo, which forbade any American vessels to go out, and recalled those that were abroad. As the American commerce was now ruined, Mr Jefferson, who was supposed to be the cause of the evil, became very unpopular with the commercial class; but as this very commercial dis-



tress seemed likely to make America turn to agriculture and manufactures, he became all the more popular with another party in the country.

Party politics ran so high, in Jefferson's as well as Adams' time, that even yet there is not an impartial estimate to be made of these men. They were remarkably different in temperament. Both were obstinate, and thought whatever opposed their views was wicked and unprincipled. The obstinacy of Adams, was that which belongs to a strong instinct governing his thoughts. The obstinacy of Jefferson was the strength of theoretical imagination. His Letters, in five volumes, can be studied by those who would estimate him correctly. He was truly devoted to the idea of Human Liberty and equality, and not being a believer in Divine Revelation, he exalted the prerogatives of human will, and trusted the deductions of the human understanding, as if it could compass absolute truth. Both these persons had their great merits, but their characteristic obstinacy was not more different from each other's, than from the firmness of Washington, which sprang from a pure reason, always in a devout attitude.

#### LESSON XXVIII.—JEFFERSON.

Who gained the Presidential victory over Adams? Who was Vice President, his first term? What did Jefferson do about appointments? With what good omens did his administration begin? What new State was admitted in 1802? How long had it been settled? Where first? What hostile act of Spain occurred the same year? What violent proceeding was the consequence? What peaceful measure took its place and why? Who has written the history of Louisiana? What were the objections to the purchase of Louisiana? Its advantages—what? What was the Tripolitan difficulty in

1803? How did the U. S. answer the declaration of war? What mishap did Preble have? What was Decatur's exploit? What did Mr. Eaton plan and accomplish? How did the matter end? What made Aaron Burr aspire to be Governor of New-York? What was Hamilton's death? What was his character? Of what crime was Burr subsequently accused? What had given great impulse to American commerce since Jay's treaty? How did it now suffer? What special cause of war with England arose? What proclamation did Jefferson make about this and the right of search? What new outrages induced the decree of the Embargo? What effect had this on Jefferson's popularity? What differences in the characters of Jefferson, Adams, and Washington, were there?

Look at the Plate and observe how Jefferson's inauguration is represented in 1801, 5th subdivision; Ohio's admission in 1802, 2nd subdivision; Jefferson's purchase of Louisiana in the 7th, and the Tripolitan difficulties in the 6th subdivision of 1803. Decatur's and Eaton's exploits in the 8th, and Hamilton's death in the 9th subdivision of 1804. Abolition of Foreign Slave trade in 6th, and in 8th of 1807, may be represented Jefferson's Embargo; the same year as Burr's trial.

#### MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION.

James Madison, of Virginia, was elected in 1809, to succeed Thomas Jefferson as President; and George Clinton of New York, was re-elected Vice President.

The great event of Madison's administration, was the war with Great Britain, called "the war of 1812."

This was mainly occasioned by the battle between the Democrats and Federalists, with respect to the rival decrees of France and England. The merchants themselves had

been only anxious to have the Embargo taken off, and to carry on their trade at all risks. And now, even if they conformed to the British "orders in council," and paid the duty in England which was imposed on all neutral vessels trading with her enemies, they could still make their commerce lucrative. But the democrats, led by Clay and Calhoun, were furious at the idea of Americans paying duties to England in any case; and hence they favored a non-intercourse law with Great Britain, while liberty was given to trade with France. The Federalists were equally enraged with the thought of America's supporting the despotism of Bonaparte; whose allies everywhere had become his subjects. It was impossible for those who had partaken in the excitements and struggles of the era of '76, to look upon events with a single and dry regard to the question of pecuniary interest; and yet the pecuniary interests involved in the question, did unquestionably increase the vehemence of the debates in Congress. For the first three years of Madison's first term, there was constant political war upon foreign relations, and the debates of Congress at this time are carefully detailed by Mr. Hildreth, in the XXII. and XXIII. chapters of his History of the United States. Once during this time, the British minister at Washington, Mr. Erskine, having declared that the British "Orders in Council" should not apply to the neutral American flag, intercourse with England was renewed; but soon after, his declaration being unsupported by Mr. Canning the English Premier, a non-importation act was ordered by the American Government, to the great exasperation of the commercial class. Bonaparte, in 1810, incensed with the idea of a good understanding between England and the United States, that had been suggested by the short revival of commerce during the time when the non-intercourse law was abrogated, ordered a seizure of American vessels that were in the French ports;

on the other hand, as soon as the British thought the Americans and Bonaparte were coming to good terms, they again made prizes of the American shipping; and Commodore Rogers, of the frigate *President*, being on the coast of Virginia, met the British "*Little Belt*," cruising to prevent their "*Orders in Council*" from being disobeyed; and on challenging it and receiving no answer, he fired into it, killing 11 men, and wounding 21. This was one earnest of the war of 1812.

Another was the Indian War of 1811, which it was believed the British encouraged, if they did not instigate it. This war was occasioned by the Shawnee twin-brothers, Tecumseh and the Prophet, who undertook to confederate all the Indian tribes, for the purpose of opposing the extension of United States settlements towards the northwest, and in other directions. Tecumseh was a man of great ability for war and politics; while the Prophet believed himself, and made others believe, that he had direct communications with the Great Spirit, which gave him immense power over the imagination of Indians. Tecumseh pretended to General Harrison, who was governor of the United States Territory, that he did not mean to make war on the United States; but merely to punish all Indians who sold lands to the whites without the concurrence of all the tribes; and he refused to recognize the new boundary of the United States, made by the purchase of the northern part of Ohio and southern part of Michigan from the Delawares, (who had been driven into this region the century before.) Tecumseh said they had no right to sell without the consent of all the other tribes. Harrison replied that the Delawares had a right to sell, for the Great Spirit had not united the Indians, but separated them, by "putting different tongues into the heads of different tribes"—an answer and argument which threw Tecumseh into a violent rage, and all but brought on a battle between their respective attendants, at the mo-



ment, and on the spot. But Tecumseh was not yet prepared to begin war, and the next day apologized for his vehemence. He immediately set out on a journey through the South, to consummate a general union of the tribes in that region with those of the Northwest. Meanwhile, his brother was left to keep up and increase the excitement of the warriors of the Northwest, by means of incantations, and all the other arts of the "medicine man." A great number of Indians assembled for these rites, in a village on the Tippecanoe, a branch of the Wabash, and became so violent and outrageous in their occasional demonstrations, that Harrison thought it most prudent to go and disperse them; and marching out of his own quarters, he encamped, with nearly a thousand men, near the Prophet's town. But the Indians, aware of his approach, were beforehand with him; and at about four o'clock, in the morning of November 8th, attacked him. It was not until after a tremendous battle of four hours, that he routed them with the bayonet. The next day he destroyed the village. Tecumseh was very much enraged with his brother for provoking this battle, whose issue disconcerted all his grand schemes. But he did what he could, by throwing himself on the side of the British, in the War of 1812, which was proclaimed the 19th of April, just twenty-nine years after the proclamation of the peace of '83.

The great plan was to invade Canada; but all the brilliancy of the war, during the first year, was naval. In October, the frigate *Constitution*, Captain Hull, gained a victory over the British frigate *Guerriere*, Captain Dacres—shooting away every mast and spar, and killing one-third of the crew—and all in the space of half an hour! Soon after, the sloop *Wasp*, Captain Jones, in an action of three-quarters of an hour, captured the brig *Frolic*, on the coast of North Carolina, which fought till it had only three officers and one man left unhurt, hav-

ing lost eighty men, while the Wasp only lost ten men. (But both the victor and vanquished were on this same day taken by a British seventy-four.) One week afterward, Commodore Decatur, of the frigate United States, captured the frigate Macedonian, after a battle of two hours, and a loss to the British of an hundred men, killed and wounded. In December, Commodore Bainbridge, (then *Captain* only,) of the Constitution, captured the frigate Java, off the coast of Brazil, losing only thirty-four men, while the Java had two hundred killed and wounded. This battle lasted three hours, and the Java, made a complete wreck, was burnt up.

The American privateers also captured three hundred merchant vessels, mostly armed; and took three thousand prisoners of war—while British privateers took very few American vessels. These splendid successes by sea were a needed consolation for the losses on the Canada frontier, where the surrender of General Hull and the failures of General Alexander Smythe, and others, were mortifying. To this day, the facts of the several cases, and the reasons for them, are subjects of dispute. Unquestionably, the preparations for the war were utterly inadequate. General Hull gave reasons for his surrender that implicated the prudence, if not the good faith of the Government, in this respect; and General Dearborn, who was his personal enemy, was president of the court-martial that condemned him. The reason given for the failures on Lake Erie and Ontario, was, that the militia, who were relied upon to cross the Lake, had scruples as to whether the United States Government could call militia out of their own State; because militia is raised for defence, not aggression, according to the Constitution. The failure, generally, was the consequence of going to war when the country was divided in opinion and will.\* But Colonel Wool's bravery at Queenstown,

\* See Hildreth, Chaps. XXIV. and XXV.

and Colonel Miller's rout of the British, aided by the Indians under Tecumseh, on the banks of the "Bloody Run," and General Brown's repulse of the British at Ogdensburg, were exceptions. And these deeds, together with the successes of the little navy, kindled the war spirit of the army, so that the year 1813 was more prosperous on land, and all that had been lost in 1812 was recovered.

On January 10th, General Winchester recaptured Frenchtown, about twenty-five miles from Detroit, it having been occupied by the British and Indians. There he was besieged the next day, by the British, and some Indians who constituted the force of General Proctor; and was induced to surrender to the latter, on the promise of being protected by him from Indian massacre. But Proctor did not redeem his pledge, and a frightful massacre commenced, which was only arrested by the energy of Tecumseh, who was absent when it began, but who, returning at the moment, rushed, at the imminent risk of his life, into their midst, and stopped it, reproaching Proctor (when the latter told him he could not restrain savage Indians) with the taunt, "Go and put on petticoats—you are not fit to command men." Proctor afterwards besieged General Harrison at Fort Meigs; but on being deserted by the Indians, abandoned the siege, to renew it again in July—still without success. He then attempted the siege of Sandusky, which was successfully defended by the brave Major Croghan, who had the smallest means.

Meanwhile, Commodore Perry built a squadron of nine vessels on Lake Erie, which Commodore Barney opposed with a British squadron of six; and in the battle which ensued, every vessel of the British surrendered—after which he transported General Harrison across the Lake in pursuit of Proctor; and he fought the British on the Thames, eighty miles above Detroit, and defeated them entirely, notwithstanding Proctor was



aided by Tecumseh, with his great Indian force, that fought till Tecumseh himself fell. This victory terminated the war on the northwest.

While General Harrison was gaining these victories in the Northwest, which recovered Detroit ; General Dearbon, with the army of the centre, was prosecuting the object of invading Canada ; and having crossed Lake Ontario in Chauncey's fleet, captured York, Lieut. General Scott leading the van, and Pike making a brave attack ; in which, however, the latter lost his valuable life. The fleet, with the victorious troops, then proceeded to Fort Niagara, capturing on the way, Fort George, which caused the evacuation of all the British posts on the Niagara river, including Fort Erie ; and was an advantage to Commodore Perry, who was then building his squadron, at Presq' Isle, now Erie. Hildreth says it was "the sole advantage, derived from Dearbon's expedition ;" for Fort George was destroyed and abandoned in the last part of the year by General M'Clure, in consequence of his losing his militia, whose time had expired, and who would not re-enlist. On his retirement, he set fire to the neighboring village of Newark (now called Niagara) and hastened to Blackrock and Buffalo, to defend the magazines there. The British revenged this ; for after taking possession of Fort Niagara, which was left slenderly defended by a few regulars, they burnt Youngstown, Lewistown, Tuscaroora, and Manchester (now called Niagara-falls-village), and even pursued M'Clure to Blackrock and Buffalo, which they burned ; and, in spite of 2000 militia, which M'Clure hastily assembled, and had no time to discipline, they destroyed a great quantity of provisions, and some of Perry's squadron.

But in the South, General Jackson was opposing the Creek Indians, with more success. Tecumseh had not failed to excite a war party there, although the older chiefs, and a party



of the nation, were strongly in favor of peace. The young Creeks began this war, by the surprise of Fort Minns in Alabama, and made a great massacre. With an army of volunteers from Tennessee, Jackson fought five great battles on the branches of the Mobile, between November 3rd, 1813, and the April of 1814, at Tallushatchee, Talladega, Autosee, Emucfau, and Tohopeka; at all of which he was victorious. At Tahopeka the Indians fortified themselves with their wives and children, and Generals Coffee and Jackson enclosed them. They fought till nearly all were killed, though they were 1000 warriors. It was the deathblow of the Creeks.

To these successes, and the recovery of Detroit, are to be added the naval victories of the year 1813. The American Privateers captured British vessels all over the Atlantic, Indian, and Pacific oceans. Also, in March, Captain Lawrence of the *Hornet*, disabled the British brig *Peacock*, in a conflict of 15 minutes, so that it sank before all the prisoners could be removed, and even carried down three of the *Hornet's* men who had boarded her. Being promoted to the frigate *Chesapeake*, three months after, Lawrence went out of Boston Harbor with a new and undisciplined crew, and engaged with the British ship *Shannon*, which, with the *Tenedos*, was cruising off the shores of New England. The action was visible from Boston, and the houses along the coast; and never was there a braver on the part of the American Commander, but he was mortally wounded in the first of it, and carried below, crying out "Don't give up the Ship;" which, repeated many times, in the delirium of the fever which ensued, has become the motto of the American navy. His Lieutenant, Ludlow, was also mortally wounded, and the British boarded the frigate, and carried it into Halifax, where both these officers were buried with military honors, by the enemy; a ceremony repeated in still more splendid style in Salem, Massachusetts,

Crowninshield, a noted privateersman, having gone to Halifax with a flag of truce, and obtained the consecrated bodies. The fight between the Chesapeake and Shannon, had only lasted 15 minutes; but the Shannon lost 23 killed, and 56 wounded, half as great a loss as that of the Chesapeake itself. So that this defeat, under all the circumstances, operated on the American imagination very nearly like a victory.

Meanwhile Porter, of the Essex, cruising on the Pacific ocean, captured twelve British whalers which were armed and provided with letters-of-marque, making them formidable privateers; and Allen, of the sloop Argus, took twenty-one merchant vessels in the British Channel, but lost his own subsequently, being mortally wounded, in a severe engagement with the Pelican, which was also a sloop of war, but larger and stronger than the Argus. Captain Burroughs, of the Enterprise, also captured the British brig Boxer, of fourteen guns, off the coast of Maine, but in the warm action of forty minutes both Commanders fell, and were buried with equal military honors in Portland.

The British were surprised and confounded at meeting with all these losses on the sea. But the capture of the Chesapeake, greatly encouraged them, and they now made an effort, and blockaded the Constellation, United States, Macedonian, and Hornet, in the American ports, while the Constitution was laid up for repairs. There were twenty British ships in the Chesapeake, and a descent had been made, June 25th, on Hampton, a village on James river, Virginia, which was plundered, with shocking barbarities; and Norfolk, and even Washington was threatened, to the immense terror of the peaceful inhabitants. Mr. Hildreth says that Mrs. Gaston, wife of the M. C. from North Carolina, died in convulsions of fright, while this fleet lay off the coast.

The first thing accomplished in 1814, was the end of the

Creek war by General Jackson, who, not without some severe losses, succeeded at last in utterly breaking up the Confederation of Tecumseh, who had fallen in the battle of the Thames a year before.

The Northern army, in the course of the summer, made another attempt at invading Canada, which had a brilliant success. Generals Scott and Ripley took Fort Erie, in the end of July; General Brown gained the battle of Chippewa two days after; and, on the 25th, General Scott, Major Jesup, and Colonel Miller gained the great battle of Lundy's Lane—one of the most hard fought of the war. Each of the armies lost between eight and nine hundred men, the British having begun with five thousand, and the Americans with about two-thirds of that number. Generals Scott and Brown were both wounded in this battle, and the Americans afterward retired to Fort Erie, from which the British were repulsed, by General Gaines, on the 4th of August, with a loss to them of a thousand men. The Americans afterward destroyed Fort Erie, and went to Buffalo and Black rock to winter. In judging of the war on the Canada frontier, whether its early failures or later successes, we should take into account, that at that time, while the British border was thickly settled, on the American side of the river and lakes, it was almost a wilderness still, and exceedingly unhealthy.

But we must return to the Atlantic coast, where the British Admiral Cochrane, August 18th, was entering Chesapeake Bay, having arrived with a new and large British fleet from Bermuda, with four thousand troops of Lord Wellington's late peninsular army, under General Ross. Cockburn's blockading squadron joined this fleet, adding to Ross's force a thousand marines, and a hundred armed and disciplined negro fugitives, from the Virginia and Maryland plantations. Some of the frigates entered the Potomac, but most of the fleet ascend-



ed to Benedict, fifty miles below Washington, and landed without opposition, the Marylanders being in greater fear of negro insurrection than of the British; for the slaves in this region exceeded the whites in number, and were friendly to the enemy. Ross then advanced on land three days, without interruption, for the militia of the several States could not be got together at so short notice. General Winder had command of the military district, and at Bladensburgh there was a battle, in which the British remained masters of the field, and from thence they advanced to Washington, which they found abandoned, and took possession of it, setting on fire all the public buildings, except the one containing the post-office and the patent office. Supposing that the Americans were mustering on Georgetown Heights, Ross then retired to Benedict, which he reached, without interruption, on the 29th—the same day that the British frigates anchored before Alexandria. That city purchased immunity from fire and pillage, by surrendering its shipping and merchandise. A fortnight after, General Ross approached Baltimore, which was defended by ten thousand militia, under General Striker. But he was killed at the very beginning of the encounter, by an advanced corps, at North Point, which the British succeeded afterward to drive off their ground, and the next day they advanced on Baltimore, the fleet cannonading Fort M'Henry, which defended the entrance of the harbor, two miles below the city. But it could not get near enough to do much harm to the fort, and the shallowness of the water of the harbor of Baltimore prevented a landing in the city, so that the next night, the British retired down the Chesapeake, whose waters were now abandoned.

Meanwhile, on the very day that Ross was killed, a great battle had taken place at Plattsburgh, on Lake Champlain. The triumph of the allied armies in Europe over Bonaparte, had



enabled the army of the north, as well as the coast fleet, to be reinforced. The Captain General of Canada, Sir George Prevost, therefore, on September 1st, marched on Plattsburg, with twelve thousand veteran troops. It was defended by General Macomb, with three thousand men, to whom, at his call, were added, within a week, three thousand militia, from New York and Vermont; and he strongly intrenched himself behind the rocky, unfordable Saranac. The British waited ten days for their squadron, which carried ninety-five guns, and one thousand seamen, and was commanded by Captain Downie, who began a battle, on the 11th, with Commodore Macdonough, who was guarding the harbor of Plattsburgh with a squadron carrying eighty-six guns, and eight hundred and fifty men. This naval battle lasted two hours and a quarter, when Downie struck his flags. The British land army had been erecting batteries in the ten days, and at the very time of the American victory on the lake, was defeated by General Macomb on the shore; and after fighting more or less all day, it retreated in the evening, leaving behind the sick and wounded, and their luggage. These brilliant victories, together with a successful sortie of General Brown's, from Fort Erie, upon Fort Niagara, breaking up an attempt of the British to fortify the latter, were some consolation for the losses in the Chesapeake Bay, and contributed a little to allay the panic produced in all the seaports of the coast, by the threats of Admiral Cockburne, which had even roused the Federal party to vigorous measures of defence.

But the closing battles of the war were fought in the South. General Jackson, at this time (September, 1814) believing that the Spanish authorities of Florida were affording aid to the British, by giving succor to the refugee Redsticks, and allowing a British vessel to land arms and agents at Apalachicola, attacked Pensacola, where the British colonel, Nichols, had

landed a small troop, and begun to draw round him the refugee Creeks. Before December, Jackson had compelled the British evacuation of Florida; but knowing that they were concentrating upon Louisiana, he went to New Orleans, which was utterly undefended, sending on word before, that the governor, Claiborne, should order all the militia of Louisiana for instant service, and issuing from Mobile an affectionate address to "the noble-hearted, generous, free men of color," whom he called on to enroll themselves in a distinct corps, and coöperate in the defence; to which they nobly and generously responded. He arrived December 1st, and, intent on augmenting his feeble defences by all means, accepted the aid of a party of French buccaneers from Baratavia, who were under sentence of condemnation for piracy, and aid afforded to the British, but who now offered their services to Jackson, on promise of pardon; and he even released and embodied the convicts of the State prison. On December 12th, he heard that the British fleet had anchored off the entrance of Lake Borgue, sixty miles from New Orleans, and, three days after, that it had captured a small American flotilla there, though not without a hard fight; also that the Balize, at the entrance of the river, was in their hands. At this important crisis, General Coffee, with a detachment of regulars, and the Tennessee and Kentucky volunteers, whom Jackson had at first called to his aid, all arrived; and he found himself at the head of 5,000 men; but they were without arms, and otherwise unprovided; and, to compel assistance from the Louisiana Legislature, and prevent treachery, by terror, he laid the city under martial law, on his own responsibility. On the 22d, the British army had advanced within nine miles of New Orleans, and succeeded in repulsing the Americans who attacked them; and, on the 28th, they cannonaded General Jackson's troops, which were entrenched four miles below the city, but the cannonade made

little impression. It was not till the 8th of January, that General Packenham, at the head of 12,000 British veterans, advanced on 6,000 Americans, who awaited their approach behind a fort made of cotton bales, which baffled, by deadening, the heavy cannonade of a battery that he had erected during the previous night, to cover his approach. All was silence, till he had come within rifle-shot, when a murderous fire, killing the General, and wounding the high officers next in command, struck down also the whole front rank, and threw the British army into confusion. Lambert, who succeeded Packenham in the command, after a struggle of an hour, and two unsuccessful advances, withdrew, calling off Thompson, who had gained an excellent post on the opposite side of the river, and abandoning the redoubt which had been taken by another column of the British army. He fell back to the landing place on Lake Borgue, and Jackson did not pursue him. Seven hundred British were left dead, and one thousand lay wounded on the battle-field of New Orleans; while the Americans had only six men killed, and seven wounded. In the whole campaign the American loss had not come up to three hundred and fifty men.

After this great victory, which gave to General Jackson the title of "Hero of New Orleans," the British reëmbarked their army, and left the waters of the Mississippi for ever.

But a treaty of peace had already been signed at Ghent, a fortnight before, Dec. 24th, 1814, the news of which did not arrive in America till the 3d of February. Before it was known to the navy out upon service, the Constitution had captured the Cyane and Levant, and the Hornet had taken the Penguin, in the waters between Africa and South America.

Peace was hailed with rejoicings all over the land, and by all parties. It is, however, a curious fact, that the treaty did not mention the encroachments on the American commerce,



or the claim to the right of search, which were the immediate occasion of the contest. The truth is, the real cause of the war was the uneasy desire of both nations, to settle in the minds of each other the question of their relative strength. America had vindicated her prowess, and thereafter the two chief branches of the Anglo-Saxon race could go on in mutual respect of each other's might, and more disposed than ever rival nations were before, to ask if, as means of adjusting their mutual rights, love will not do as well as war.

The account we have given is general; but the military history may be studied in detail, with the accompanying political history, which is full of lessons for the statesman, in Hildreth's chapters XXV. to XXX. inclusive; and by-and-by, doubtless, in Bancroft's forthcoming volumes. It is an important era of the United States history. Hildreth says: "Whatever side-motives—hope of plunder by privateering, hope of military distinction, hope of enrichment by government contracts, hope of an interior market for agricultural produce, hope of protection to domestic manufactures, hope of riding into office on the crest of a wave of blood, hatred of England and partiality for France \* \* \* might have tended to precipitate the war—still it was a war for the right of personal freedom from the domineering insolence of British press gangs; an idea congenial to every manly soul, and giving to the contest a strong hold on the hearts of the masses; in fact, a just title to the character of a democratic war, in the very best sense of that ambiguous epithet \* \* \* a necessary and noble struggle against insolence and oppression; not the less noble because rashly undertaken on behalf of the poor, the helpless, and the stranger; and perhaps, like other great efforts on the side of humanity, not the less effectual, though, at the moment, it seemed to fail wholly in its object."



One striking effect of the war was to bring to an end the strife between the Federalists and Democrats. Doubtless the former had been honest in their belief that the war was a support of Bonaparte's despotism against Great Britain, which seemed to them the sole remaining bulwark in Europe of national independence. But the latter were no less honest in viewing this same Great Britain as a domineering and piratical monopolist and tyrant of the ocean. As such, the American navy had put it down. If Bonaparte was overthrown, and no longer threatening with his imperial despotism the whole world, yet the English government, by entering the Holy Alliance (misnamed!), was no longer the champion of the nationalities of the continent, but part of the mountain of old-fashioned despotism that was crushing them; and this presently began to appear.

But this attitude of the English government could not be, as yet, appreciated by either party, any more than by the noble English people themselves.\*

Hardly was peace arranged, when a squadron was fitted out against the Barbary States, under Captain Decatur. It will be remembered that the negotiations of Mr. Lear, consul of Algiers, had, in a very summary way, closed up the war of Tripoli, in 1805, and with much more compromise with its piratical Bashaw, than Mr. Eaton, consul of Tunis, had proposed. Eaton's bold policy had aimed at crushing this nest of pirates, by a display of fearlessness and force, instead of buying off their enmity with annual tribute; as well as to secure the real friendship of Hamet, by effectual assistance to him in recovering his rights from his usurping brother. In

\* It does not come into the scope of such a work as this to show that the English government has an interest diverse from that of the people; because, by reason of its national debt, it is, to use the words of another, "running a race with ruin."

1812, when the Dey of Algiers, taking advantage of the fact that the American navy was occupied in war with England, extorted from Mr. Lear a large sum of money, as the price of his own safety, and at the same time captured American vessels and reduced their crews to slavery, Mr. Eaton's views were justified. Nothing could be done about it till 1815, when Commodore Decatur, in the course of one month, captured two Algerine vessels, and dictated to the Bashaws of Tunis and Tripoli and the Dey of Algiers, such a treaty of peace as delivered the United States, forever after, from the necessity of paying tribute to them, and secured to American shipping in the Mediterranean, immunity from piracy.

During Mr. Madison's administration, the prevalence of war gave but little opportunity for the development of internal welfare. In 1816, however, Indiana was admitted into the Union; and the same year a new United States Bank was chartered for twenty years, with a capital of thirty-five millions of dollars. The mother bank was organized at Philadelphia, and branches at Boston, New York, Baltimore, Portsmouth, Providence, Middletown, Ct., Washington, Richmond, Norfolk, Savannah, New Orleans, Lexington, Cincinnati, Chillicothe, Louisville, Pittsburg, Fayetteville, and Augusta. This bank, whose bills passed current, without discount, all over the Union, afforded great facilities for doing business, which were greatly needed at the time, for peace had not procured immediate freedom from pecuniary embarrassment. Indeed, the throwing open of the ports to foreign vessels inundated the country with goods, which embarrassed the feeble manufacturing establishments that had grown up during the war. These pecuniary embarrassments, however, in their turn, operated to throw the people upon the new lands of the West, and foreign emigration increased, as the old despotism shut down again over Europe, under the auspices of the unholy alliance.

## LESSON XXIX.—MADISON.

What is the great feature of Madison's administration? What was done about the Embargo? What did Bonaparte do with respect to the American shipping in 1810? How did the British act, on finding the Americans and Bonaparte at peace? What was the "affair of the *Little Belt*?" What other earnest of war was there in 1811? What was Tecumseh's plan? Where was he when the war broke out? What occasioned the battle of Tippecanoe? What can you tell about it? How did Tecumseh take this event? When was war with Great Britain formally declared? Was it more brilliant on land or sea the first year? What was the victory gained by Captain (afterwards Commodore) Hull? What victory was gained by Captain Jones? and what reverse followed the same day? What victory by Commodore Decatur? What by Commodore Bainbridge? What did the American privateers accomplish? What mortifying losses did the Americans have on the northern frontier, during the year 1812? Where had Colonels Wool and Miller done bravely? Were the Americans more prosperous in this quarter the next year? What circumstances do you remember about General Winchester's victory and defeat at Frenchtown? What other places did Proctor besiege, and with what success? What had Croghan done? Meanwhile, what had Commodore Perry done on Lake Erie? What great victory did Harrison gain soon after, and how was it? How had the Indian war in the South begun? What had General Jackson done? Had the army in the centre, under General Dearborn, done anything, while Harrison in the Northwest, and Jackson in the South, were subduing the Indians and British? What did Scott and Pike do? What did General M'Clure do? How did the

British revenge this? What victory and loss did Captain Lawrence have upon the ocean meanwhile? What tribute of respect was paid to Lawrence and his Lieutenant, Ludlow, by both the enemies and friends? What did Porter, of the Essex, do? What victories and loss did Allen, of the Argus, have? What Captain Burroughs, of the Enterprise? Were the American privateers still successful? What mischief did the British do upon the Atlantic coast, in 1813? What do you remember of the battle of Bladensburg? Who took the City of Washington, and what did he do to it? How did Alexandria save itself from the like? Where did General Ross go afterwards, and with what success? What was the last thing the British did before leaving the Chesapeake? What did the northern army do in 1814? What Generals took Fort Erie, July 3d? What great battle did General Brown gain two days after? What do you remember about the battle of Lundy's Lane? What loss did the British meet with on the 4th of August? Did the Americans remain in Fort Erie? What battle was there on Lake Champlain in September? Tell all you know about it? What great land battle was there the same day? What do you remember of that? Where were the closing battles of the war? What had General Jackson done in Florida, in 1814? Why did he go to New Orleans in December, and what did he do there? What battle occurred on the 10th of December? Where was another battle on the 22d? What was done on the 28th? Describe the battle of New Orleans, and its consequences. When was the treaty of peace signed? When did the news reach America? How was it received? What were the last American victories at sea? What had been the real cause of the war? What was the occasion of the war with Algiers? What did Commodore Decatur do, and with what effect? What new States were added to the Union during Mr. Madison's admin-



istration? What famous bank was chartered, and for how long? What first caused the establishment of manufactures in the United States? Did the peace bring immediate pecuniary relief to the country? What emigration did this cause within the United States? What immigration took place, and by what was it caused?

Look on the Plate, and see how Madison's inauguration in 1809 is represented in 9th subdivision; Tecumseh's confederation in 6th, and battle of Tippecanoe, in 1st of 1811; American victories of War of 1812, orange—purple in 1st; British loss in 3d; surrender of Detroit in 6th, and admission of Louisiana State in 2nd subdivision; American victories of 1813 in 1st; British losses in 3d; Tecumseh's death in 9th; victories of the Americans by large upper triangle; treaty of peace by small triangles in 6th of 1814; victory of New Orleans, 1st, orange and purple; Decatur's exploit in 8th, and his treaty with Barbary in 6th of 1815; Indiana's admission in 2nd, and charter of second United States Bank in 6th of 1816.

#### MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.

James Monroe was the successor of Madison, in the Presidential office. He came in, March 4, 1817. This season was called "the Era of Good Feeling," as the close of the war had taken away from the Federal party their last great ground of opposition to the Democrats, who were certainly somewhat justified in the result. The change of hands of the administration had also shown to the Democrats, that the main principles of the Federalists had been correct. It is quite instructive to read the history of the Federal administration, published by Robert G. Harper of Baltimore, in Walsh's United States Gazette of 1824; for we shall observe that all the main measures of the Federalists, were adopted by the

Democrats, when they came into power. The administration party must necessarily be a Federal party. Besides; Monroe personally subscribed to the doctrine of the old Federalists, that government ought to be in the hands of the intelligent and moral; while the old Republican doctrine was, that the right to govern is the normal state of man, and when enjoyed universally, will develop intelligence and morality in all. Time and experience must decide the question, as to which is the most reliable principle in politics; and teach us how at once to avoid the Scylla of absolute Conservatism, and the Charybdis of Premature Reformation.

The war of the Seminoles grew directly out of the late war with Great Britain. For certain British adventurers, even after the ratification of peace, endeavored to keep up their influence over the Indians for their own private behoof; and this was connived at by the Spaniards. General Gaines demanded of the Indians on the south bank of the Flint river, who were said by the Georgia backwoodsmen to have made depredations upon them, and committed murders,—to deliver up the murderers. The Indians refused to do this, saying that the Georgians were the aggressors; on which, the Indian village of Fowltown was attacked, under a general order from the war department to expel the Indians from the lately ceded Creek district. This was avenged, Nov. 17, 1817, by the Seminoles, who waylaid a boat, that was ascending the Apalachicola river, with supplies for Fort Scott, and out of forty men and a number of women and children, all except six men and one woman were killed. When news of this massacre arrived at Washington, Jackson was ordered to take the field in person, and authorized to call additional militia from Tennessee. The war was short. Little effectual resistance was made by the Indians. Their villages were burnt, and stores of corn and cattle taken. Hillisihajo and Hornet Henrico,

two Indian chiefs, one of whom was known to have been at the massacre on the Apalachicola, were captured by General Gibson, and immediately hanged by the order of General Jackson, who then marched against the town of Suwannee, and burned it, most of the inhabitants having fled. On the suspicion that the Spanish fort of St. Marks had afforded comfort and aid to the insurgent Indians, he also took possession of that ; and in it he found a British subject, Arbuthnot, believed to have been especially active in exciting the Indians to hostility, and who was known to have warned the inhabitants of Suwannee to fly. This man, together with Ambrister, another British subject, who had been connected with Arbuthnot in trade, and had helped the Indians and negroes to defend Suwannee, where he was taken prisoner, was brought before a court martial, where both were convicted, and condemned to be hanged ; but Ambrister's sentence was afterward changed, and he was sentenced to be whipped, and put to hard labor with a ball and chain. The principal crime charged, was their aiding the Indians, and instigating them to hostilities. Jackson, on the very day of the verdict, had them *both* hanged, on his own responsibility. He then captured Pensacola ; and Gaines bombarded St. Augustine, which Jackson would also have taken possession of, but for the countermand of the war department, which was in negotiation with Spain for the cession of Florida—a measure concluded on in the course of 1819 and 1820. Meanwhile, four new States were admitted to the Union : Mississippi in 1817 ; Illinois in 1818 ; Alabama in 1819, and Maine in 1820, the latter having been separated from Massachusetts, of which State it had been a province since 1652.

Jackson's arbitrary conduct in the Seminole war, had not escaped censure, and motions were made in Congress to give



him a public admonition, but his partizans were many, from various causes, and the President also approved his course.

In 1820-21, sprung up the great controversy upon slavery extension, which resulted in the "Missouri Compromise," an act by which Missouri was admitted as a slaveholding State, with the proviso that no more slave States should be made, out of the Territory north of Arkansas. Propositions were made in Congress, before it became a State, to exclude slavery from all Territory west of the Mississippi, and provide for its extinction in Arkansas and Missouri, which were already settled by slaveholders, with their property; for it was then admitted, on all hands, that Congress had constitutional right to impose conditions on States applying for admission. It had required Louisiana, when it was admitted, to adopt the English language.

The controversy showed that pro-slavery had become a much more general sentiment in the slave-holding States, than it was at the time the subject was debated in the Federal Convention; and that the Northern States had developed a more strong and clear anti-slavery principle. Still, the compromise could not have been effected without the votes of sixteen Northern members of Congress, characterized, therefor, by John Randolph, as "Doughfaces." The growth of slavery is a long and important chapter in the history of the United States, which cannot be treated here. It can be studied first in the "Madison Papers," II. and III. volumes, where are reported all the speeches made at the time of the Union, when compromises of the Constitution were first determined on; and followed up in Hildreth's History of the United States, who very faithfully reports every thing said and done by both parties in Congress, touching the subject then, and since. He quotes from John Quincy Adams' diary one striking para-



graph, written in 1821, in which he says: "The impression produced on my mind by the progress of the discussion is, that the bargain between freedom and slavery, contained in the constitution of the United States, is morally and politically vicious, inconsistent with principles upon which alone our revolution can be justified; cruel and oppressive, by riveting the chains of slavery, in pledging the faith of freedom to maintain and perpetuate the tyranny of the master; and grossly unequal and impolitic, by admitting that slaves are at once enemies to be kept in subjection, property to be secured, and restored to their owners, and persons not to be represented themselves, but for whom their masters are privileged with nearly a double share of representation. The consequence has been, that this slave representation has governed the Union. Benjamin, portioned above his brethren, has ravined as a wolf; in the morning he has devoured the prey, and at night he has divided the spoil.

One thing is very noticeable in the debates upon the Missouri Compromise question, and that is, the openness with which the members from the Slave States threatened to withdraw from the Union, if the slavery interest was meddled with by the Northern States; while the members of a New England Convention, that assembled at Hartford, during the War of 1812, to consider whether their interests were sufficiently protected by the General Government, were ever after visited with obloquy, and even charged as treasonable, although they did not make any such threat. Their real crime, perhaps, was, their having proposed the abolition of slave representation.

Two things more are to be noticed in James Monroe's term of administration, both of which occurred in 1824; the one, the laying of the great Protective Tariff bill, of which more will be said in the history of Jackson's administration; the other, the visit of Lafayette to this country, after forty years'

interval; and his journey of 5000 miles throughout its whole extent. This journey, which took nearly a year, was a continued triumphal progress. Public authorities and private societies throughout the States, received him with every demonstration of enthusiasm and delight; and the year of his visit was a spontaneous national jubilee, such as the world has never witnessed the like. It gave rise to a multitude of remarkable orations, beginning with the Phi Beta oration of Edward Everett, at Cambridge, and ending with the address of Webster, on Bunker Hill, where Lafayette laid the cornerstone of the great Monument.

Those who believe that out of the heart of a nation, as well as of an individual, are the issues of its life, consider an event like this of great moment. The new generation which had come upon the stage, since the death of Washington, a quarter of a century before, had not had such an appeal to its patriotic sentiments; and the effusion of feeling occasioned, was an opportunity for a general baptism into the spirit of Liberty.\*

### LESSON XXX.—MONROE.

Why was Monroe's term called the "Era of good feeling?" Of what party must the administration always be? What was the difference between the Federalist and Democratic view of the nature of liberty? What was the cause of the Seminole war of 1817? What, the immediate occasion of the outbreak? Who was made United States commander? Give an account of the war? What did General Gibson do? What did Jackson do with respect to the captured chiefs? Why did he attack St. Marc's? What can you tell of the conduct

\* A Life of Lafayette, written at this time, by Mrs. John Farrar, of Cambridge, Massachusetts, ought to be always kept in print for the libraries of children.

and fate of Ambrister and Arbuthnot? What also was done in Florida? When did Spain cede Florida? What States were added in 1817, 1818, 1819 and 1820? Was Jackson's arbitrary conduct in the war approved? When was Missouri added? What was the "Missouri Compromise" respecting slavery? Had Congress exercised the right to impose conditions on States asking for admission? What changes of sentiment concerning slavery did the controversy prove to have taken place, since the time of the Federal Convention? What opinion did John Quincy Adams record in his diary? When was the great Protective Tariff bill passed? When did Lafayette make his visit? What was the effect of it?

Look at the plate, and observe in 1817, that Monroe's inauguration is represented in the fifth subdivision; the Seminole war in the first, and that in the second, of 1817, 1818, 1819, 1820, and 1821, are represented the accession of new States. In the sixth of 1820, the cession of Florida by Spain; in the sixth of 1821, the "Missouri Compromise;" in the sixth of 1824, great Protective Tariff; and in the eighth, Lafayette's visit.

#### JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

When Mr. Monroe's administration closed, John Quincy Adams was chosen his successor, after an election contested with still more excitement than that one which had defeated his father's second term. There were four candidates, Adams, Crawford, Jackson, and Clay. As the people failed to elect, the House of Representatives decided in favor of Mr. Adams as President, and Mr. Calhoun of South Carolina, as Vice President. Mr. Clay gracefully withdrawing his name, to ensure this result. There were difficulties between the State of Georgia and the Creek Indians, that came to a head during Mr. Adam's administration.



With respect to the Indians, the United States General Government had always maintained a protective relation, as may be seen by the Treaties which had been made with them, published in 1832, in a volume, by Thompson and Howard of Washington, D. C., and even up to this time there had been no lands taken from the Indians by its authority, without a handsome indemnity in money. But the Southern *States* very little regarded the claims of Justice; and were for driving these people, willing or unwilling, west into Arkansas. Monroe, in his message of 1824, speaks of the severity and injustice with which most of the State governments treated the Indians within their borders, and the perplexity this occasioned to the Federal Government; and intimates, that in order to satisfy the demands of the State governments, the Indians had been pressed by the Federal Government, rather unreasonably, to remove. But in 1825, when some new treaties were made with the Indians of the Northwest territory, and even west of the Mississippi, where lands had been purchased, a pretended treaty with a few Creeks was made by the State of Georgia, at Indian Springs, engaging the tribe to remove, to which a large part of the Creek Nation was not accessory, but which was ratified by the United States Government without its knowing that the treaty was so partial. The Georgians, unheeding the refusal of the Creeks to be bound by this treaty, concerning which they were not generally consulted, proceeded to cause surveys to be made of the lands, declaring that they had a right to these lands, in virtue of an agreement made by the United States, in 1802, to extinguish the Indian claim, and have the Indians removed, "as soon as it could be done peaceably." The United States did what it could, by new grants of money; and a portion of the Creeks removed to Arkansas; but the rest appealed to "their great Father at Washington," to be protected in the lands



already guaranteed to them. Adams, in consequence, threatened to use the military force of the United States against Georgia, not only as bound to protect the Indians by the law of 1802, but, as he said, "by an obligation higher than that of any human authority." The thing nearly came to a war in 1826, and in 1828, the Legislature of Georgia not only enacted that the laws of Georgia were to take effect over the Indian country, but that their own laws were to be null, and that no Indian nor descendant of an Indian, residing within the Creek or Cherokee nation, should be deemed a competent witness, or a party to any suit, in any Court created by the Constitution or laws of the State, to which a white man may be a party.

At this time the number of Indians, within the bounds of the several States, was estimated to be 303,000. In his annual message of 1828, Adams stated the extreme difficulty of adjusting the conflicting Indian and State claims, especially in those cases where their civilization and christianity had enabled them to form independent communities; for they were rivals for sovereignty within the territory of the members of the Union, and would not, in many instances, be bought off with money. On the one hand the Federal Government was bound to protect the Indians in their unalienated sovereignty, and on the other, not to contravene the sovereign will of the States. It is strange that it did not occur to him, that, the true course for the Indians to pursue, was to set themselves up as an Independent State, and ask to be admitted into the Union, receiving for a season a territorial government, by way of preparation for exercising State rights. There is no reason in nature why this should not be done. It is an idea which may not have appeared in print before, but it has been entertained by some individuals of great ability, both in office and out of office. To carry out such a project,

would only require a leader among the United States citizens, combining large experience of men, great liberality of heart, and a wise and benevolent humanity, together with business ability, energy, and perseverance, who should be able to gain the implicit confidence of the Indians. If these are inferior to the citizens of the United States in intellectual culture and gift; yet, on the other hand, as those who know them well, declare, they would throw into Congress a moral element which would be invaluable. There seems no other way of at once respecting their rights, and making them subject to the Federal Government, in those particulars in which all the States are subject to it, and give them their Sovereignty also, but to adopt some such plan. There might be a temporary condition of choosing white men for their Representatives in Congress. Jackson freely expressed it to be his personal opinion, during all these difficulties, that the Indians ought to submit to the laws of the State, within whose boundaries they were living, a ground which had never been taken by the Federal Executive before; and which accounts for his passivity, with respect to protecting them against Georgia, during his own administration. But if the Indians are bound to submit to laws, the spirit of the American Constitution dictates that they should be a party to the laws.

The fur trade interest, both of the United States border, and of Great Britain, is the great foe to the civilization of the Indians; and it has influence so extensive, though secret, that it has succeeded, hitherto, in neutralizing all the missionary, as well as the government, efforts for civilizing them. The true way to civilize them, is to give them a genial self-respect, by acknowledging their rights in this genuine, practical manner, and it would be in harmony with the creative principle of the Federal Union to do so. Already five millions of dollars have been appropriated to ex-

tinguish the Cherokee claims; an appropriation, which, if used to help them into Federal Union, would involve a fair compensation, in the long run.

In 1826, an event occurred, analogous to that of the visit of Lafayette, it being an occasion for much demonstration of sentiment all over the Union. This was the death, on the same day, and that day the 4th of July, of Thomas Jefferson and John Adams. These men had first worked together as friends, in the establishment of the American Independence, and the formation of the Federal Union; had then been separated for years, by rivalry for power, and different political views. In latter years, they had participated in the reconciliation of "the era of good feeling," and had corresponded as personal friends. Their death, on the same day, and on that day, was a powerful appeal to the patriotic imagination and heart, as was evinced by the numerous orations on the occasion.

In 1827, an extensive agitation was produced in the United States, on the subject of Masonry. Many people felt, and John Quincy Adams openly expressed himself of the opinion, that secret societies were not compatible with the genius of a Republican government, and that, however innocent, and even salutary, the mysteries of Masonry might have been in early ages, when the fraternal sentiment was yet unsupported by Christianity and Democratic institutions, it was useless at best now, and might be made politically dangerous.

A mason, by the name of Morgan, breaking his oath of secrecy, published a book, in which he intimated that the signs by which masons recognized one another, were symbolical of the capital punishments which the society inflicted on renegades, and suggested that the largest number of officials in the country were masons. He soon after disappeared, and it was believed by multitudes that he was carried off and murdered.

The excitement passed away, however, without absolutely destroying the institution of Masonry, which its defenders declare to be hardly any thing else than a benevolent society. Once it was undoubtedly a scientific and artistic association, securing to its members instruction in geometry, architecture, &c. Some denominations of Christians put a church ban on all secret societies; but at present they seem to be multitudinous.

The expenses of John Quincy Adams' administration were far less than those of any succeeding term have been. This his friends ascribed to the honest frugality of the President. It was a period of unexampled prosperity all over the country, and the friends of the protective tariff considered this the legitimate effect of that bill, under whose operation the great manufacturing towns of New England, Lowell, &c., sprang up. Nevertheless, the germs of an anti-tariff party began to sprout, in the south, and east, of which more will be said hereafter.

A great augmentation of the Protective Tariff took place in 1828.

### LESSON XXXII.—ADAMS.

Who were Adams' competitors for the Presidency? Who became Vice-President? What had hitherto always been the attitude of the Federal Government towards the Indians? What was the attitude of the States, especially the Southern States? What had Monroe said on the subject in 1824? What was the origin of the Creek difficulty in 1825? How did Georgia attempt to justify herself? What did the Federal Government do? What ground did Adams take? What new outrage did Georgia commit in 1828? What did Adams say on the subject in his message? What would be the best



way to civilize the Indians? What great interest is opposed to their civilization? What were the characteristics of Adams' administration?

Adams' inauguration is represented in the fifth, and the Creek difficulty in the sixth, subdivision of 1825. Death of Adams and Jefferson in the ninth subdivision of 1826—all in orange color; also in the sixth and ninth of 1827, is represented the anti-Masonry movement, and death of Morgan.

#### ANDREW JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

IN 1829, the presidential contest placed Andrew Jackson in the chair, John Quincy Adams being defeated. He began his administration with a general removal of all the officers within his prerogative to appoint, substituting his partisans. The measure surprised those who remembered his published letter to Mr. Monroe, on the subject of appointments; and it is said that it did not originate in himself, but that he acted on the advice of Mr. Van Buren, who was in his cabinet, and acquired his complete confidence. Since that time, the principle of "the spoils to the victors," first uttered by Richard M. Johnson, has prevailed in the presidential appointments. As it assures to the President the electioneering services of several thousand men, cabinet officers, foreign ministers and consuls, custom-house officers, and the postmasters all over the country, many persons believe that it makes public life more corrupt, and party spirit more mean and mad, continually. But those who defend it, say, that it only insures to the President desirable coöperation in his executive duties; secures a rotation in office, which keeps every thing fresh and lively; and prevents the growth of time-honored abuses.

There is something in this; and experience of the ultimate effects must decide the question. The immediate conse-

quence of the first swoop was melancholy for individuals, who had been working servants of the public for thirty years, Washington having appointed them, and were now old and unfitted for any other employments. But, of course, such life-disappointments could never come again, if rotation was to be the rule.

Jackson's administration was signalized by the culmination of the Tariff controversy, in the Nullification doctrine of South Carolina. This requires a little explanation. In the war of 1812, when commerce was paralyzed by the non-intercourse act, which succeeded the embargo, manufactures had sprung up in the inland counties of Massachusetts and some other States, and were favored by the democratic party generally. As soon as the war was over, the country was inundated with imported goods, which depressed prices, and greatly embarrassed the small manufacturing interest. The Middle and Western States thought that a manufacturing population would give them a home market for their grains; and the cotton States thought that, if India cottons could be excluded from the country, American cotton would find a market in the New England manufactories. The opposition was from the Eastern merchants, who were identified in the minds of the people with the opposition to the war of 1812. Clay and Calhoun, on the other hand, who had come into notice and popularity from their advocacy of the war, were the champions of a tariff, in Congress; hence a moderate one was carried, in 1816 (Mr. Webster, then a new member, opposing it).

In the course of the next eight years, the controversy between the free trade party and the tariff party was growing warm, and the friends of the tariff were also friends to Federal appropriations for internal improvements—canals, railways, and lake and river harbors—and all these things together ob-

tained the name of the American System, of which Clay continued to be the champion; while Mr. Calhoun changed his ground entirely. The cotton States found that it was still better to export their cotton to Old England, than to New; and that their interest was promoted by the English having it in their power to send their manufactured goods to America. The grain States became indifferent on the question, when the increase of the country afforded them a sufficient market for their goods; and the New England party, seeing how affairs were tending, concluded to put their capital into manufacturing stock, and a party sprang up in that quarter for a Protective tariff. Hence the augmentation of the tariff of 1824, in favor of the woollen and iron manufacturers, proposed by the Convention at Harrisburg. Mr. Webster opposed the tariff of 1824, though not so entirely as he had done that of 1816. Another revision of the tariff was made in 1828, and found in him a decided advocate. Though the Eastern States were still commercial, there was now an immense manufacturing interest there, which, of course, needed a tariff. The question was no longer about protection, but concerning what should be protected. The woollen manufacturers needed assistance. But a heavy duty on the raw material was a feature of the bill, on the ground of what was due to the agricultural interest. Duties on molasses were doubled, for the benefit of the grain growers of the Middle States. It was the design to make the bill as unpalatable as possible to the Eastern States. Mr. Webster spoke and voted for it, nevertheless, on the ground that what had been done before, had so influenced the disposition of capital, that, now, protection was no more than just. He was accused of acting as an attorney for his rich constituents; and it could not be winked out of sight that Mr. Calhoun had also changed his ground, with the different aspects of the Southern interest. But it is possible for great

men to change their views conscientiously, and to view constitutional rights differently, under different lights.

In 1832, the working of the tariff of 1828, was such, that the violent opposition of South Carolina embodied itself in a Convention, led by Mr. Calhoun, who had resigned his office of Vice President, in which he was succeeded by Mr. Van Buren, who was Vice President during Jackson's second term.

The Convention grounded itself on the principle of State Sovereignty, and on that provision of the Constitution, which says that Congress shall not impose a law that may press unequally upon the States. It proceeded to declare that the duties should not be collected in South Carolina; and that if any attempts to enforce the customs, should be used by the Government, that State would withdraw from the Union, and maintain its right to nullify by force of arms. This was nullification, such as was never dreamed of by the much censured Hartford Convention; and certainly *did make nothing* of the Federal Constitution and its compromises; one of which was, a giving up to Congress, on the part of the States, of the regulation of commerce. That the tariff bill was an unconstitutional law, was not to be decided, however, by the State legislature that thought itself aggrieved, as Mr. Calhoun maintained. Mr. Webster said the Supreme Court should decide; but Jackson's personal will was at once aroused by the high-toned act of the *ex parte* South Carolina Convention. He maintained that the Executive should decide on its own responsibility, and immediately ordered General Scott to Charleston, with a military force, to see that the revenue laws of the United States were respected; and to enforce them if they were evaded.

It was fortunate for all parties, that an officer so prudent, as well as patriotic, had the conduct of this delicate affair.



By his wise forbearance while at Charleston, as well as his dignified and firm bearing, Scott prevented an outbreak; and meanwhile, Mr. Clay brought forward in Congress a new compromise measure, which enabled South Carolina to retreat from her position, without too great mortification. This was a bill, providing for the gradual reduction of the tariff for ten years, until it should fall to twenty per cent *ad valorem* on all articles.

Little has been heard of nullification since. It is probable that Mr. Webster's answer to Mr. Hayne, has really, in the course of time, operated to destroy the illusion out of which it grew. Copies of this speech were multiplied into a greater number than any other pamphlet ever published in the United States. The idea and value of the Union is set forth in it, with a clearness and eloquence unsurpassable. It demonstrated, that the Federal Government is not the creation of the States, as such, but of the people as a great nationality; and for the very purpose of limiting and neutralizing a narrow, local policy, as that of a State is liable to be. It follows that the State and Federal powers must learn to adjust themselves to each other, as the Congress and Judiciary do, which are independently derived from the people, and yet work in essential harmony.

But nevertheless, in making this adjustment, many important considerations may be derived from studying Mr. Calhoun's speeches, addresses, and letters, giving an opposite view to Webster's. He was a person who had great power to see into abstract principles, though apt to take telescopic, rather than views commanding the whole horizon of truth. He had, in short, not so practical a mind as Mr. Webster's, nor possessed such ability to take an average view, where many things were to be balanced against each other.

It is the peculiar beauty of the United States Government,

that while efficiency and internal welfare on minute points, are secured by the State governments and municipality organizations ; a broad, noble, generous policy is inevitably suggested, by all the people's being part and lot of a nation, whose great extent involves so many independent interests, that *patriotism* itself is made all but cosmopolitan.

As the independence of municipalities does not interfere with the necessary efficiency of State government, so the State governments need not interfere with the broad action of the Federal Government. Each has its own sphere of operation ; and the superintendence of so vast a machinery of society,—of so many wheels within wheels,—is a noble discipline of human reason, requiring, however, that constant light from above, which only comes to the disinterested and impartial lover of man and truth. “ There is no mind so great, but *ambition* may bereave it of its last truth,” as has been wisely said, and is demonstrated continually in our history ; while the healthy intellectual influence of perfect virtue is illustrated by the character of Washington.

Another important matter dates in 1832 ; the famous veto of Jackson upon the bill for re-chartering the United States Bank. This bank had been founded in 1816, five years after the expiration of the charter of the first United States Bank. Its capital was \$35,000,000, one-fifth of which was subscribed by government, though not without an opposition, in which Webster distinguished himself, who succeeded to make it a part of the bill, that deposits of government, as well as notes of the Bank, should be redeemable in gold and silver. He also procured the adoption of a specie resolution, by virtue of which debts due to the Treasury were required to be paid in gold or silver, treasury notes, or notes of the United States Bank—a measure which restored a sound basis to the currency of the country, that had been in such confusion during

the war of 1812, that there was a general suspension of specie payments at the banks.

The large capital of the United States Bank, and its privilege of being the depository of the United States Treasury, had given an immense power to its Directors over the business of the country, enabling it to accommodate companies and individuals with the facilities that, according to the opinion of Jackson and others, enormously stimulated speculation, over-importation, and over-production in the manufacturing line.

The reasons he assigned for this veto to the bill, so wrought upon Congress, that on reconsideration, it failed to obtain the two-thirds vote. There were those, however, who said that the reasons did not operate so powerfully as the *personal prestige* of the President. But however this may be, and notwithstanding the loss of the convenient paper currency, which could pass without discount in all parts of the United States, and had credit even in England, all parties seem now to have agreed that the old hero's instincts were right in "taking the responsibility" of the veto. But it took time to realize the advantages of it, as its immediate effects embarrassed business.

Jackson's course on Nullification, however, was so popular in the country, generally, that it balanced the dissatisfactions felt on account of his war against the Bank. and he entered upon his second term of administration with the general acquiescence of all parties. But, in 1833, he carried the war farther, by removing the government deposits from the United States Bank, and dividing them among certain State Banks, thence nicknamed his "pets." This measure excited great opposition; and both Mr. Webster and Mr. Calhoun spoke against it.

Jackson's idea was, that the United States Bank was

using its vast money-power to corrupt elections, and produce a Timocracy ; and that the advantage of the deposits should be divided and more widely diffused. This measure was approved by the House of Representatives, but Mr. Clay moved a resolution to disapprove the President's act, which, with some modifications, passed the Senate, both Webster and Calhoun voting for it. The President then made a formal protest, which Mr. Webster considered as an encroachment on the rights of the Senate, and made a very great speech on the 7th of May, on the constitutional rights and duties of that body, which gained great praise from persons of opposite political prejudices.

In March, 1835, a motion was made in the Senate to expunge the senatorial resolution disapproving of General Jackson's removal of the deposits, and Mr. Webster spoke against it with great power. On this occasion he committed what he had to say to writing, and read it, as he wanted to weigh every word. It did not prevent the expunging resolution from taking effect ; but several of the opposition protested, and had their names recorded as doing so.

But the removal of the deposits to the State Banks did not, in any degree, answer the ends Jackson professed to have in view. The pet banks, in fact, gave new impulse to land speculation. They lent out their money, in bills, not to persons trading, and making more of it, but to persons buying the public lands on speculation, which, of course, brought it back again as government deposit ; and then it was let out over and over again for the same purpose, so that, by-and-by, the banks owed so much that the government became alarmed, and required that all money paid into the land offices, should be gold and silver.

The Whigs, at the same time, carried a measure of division to the several States, of the surplus revenue, which



was now nearly one hundred millions. Jackson put his veto on this bill, but it carried two-thirds majority in Congress, nevertheless, and so became a law. The money was to be paid in four instalments. With great difficulty, the banks made out to pay three; but so many of its debtors had only wild lands to show, which were unsaleable, that the banks could not collect the fourth instalment, and hence stopped specie payment in 1837—about one month after Van Buren came into the President's chair.

Then followed the order for paying *all* government dues in specie, the sub-Treasury, &c., of which more will be said hereafter.

We will now turn our attention upon matters more attractive to the imagination of youthful students.

The affair of the French indemnity, was this: In a treaty which the new government of France had made in 1831, an indemnity had been declared due to the United States, on account of the French spoliations in the early part of the century.

In April 1834, the French Chamber of Deputies rejected a law authorizing the appropriation of 25,000,000 francs for the payment of this indemnity, which so disgusted the Duke de Broglie, and Sebastiani, that they resigned their seats in the Chamber.

Jackson, in his message of December, 1834, noticed this fact, and suggested the propriety of making reprisals on French ships and property, until provision should be made for the fulfilment of the terms of the treaty of 1831. John Quincy Adams, who had become a member of the House of Representatives, (declaring that a place on that floor, was the *highest* an American citizen could fill, which declaration his own eloquence in the position went far to prove,) followed up Jackson's suggestion, by a resolution, that the treaty of

1831 "should be maintained, and its fulfilment insisted on," which was unanimously adopted.

This message and action of Congress offended the French, and they recalled their minister. But in April, 1835, a new ministry having been formed in France, with the Duke de Broglie at its head, the Indemnity bill passed the Chamber of Deputies by a vote of 289 to 137, but not without an amendment, according to which the money was not to be paid till after the French government should have received satisfactory explanations of the President's Message. On this Jackson made a special message to Congress, in which, so far from making any explanation or apology, he threatened, that if the money was not paid forthwith, France must abide the hostilities of the United States. The indemnity was paid, and the whole affair redounded very much to the honor of Jackson, both in Europe and America—its successful termination being ascribed to his firm attitude and tone. Walter Savage Landor addressed to him a grand laudatory ode on the occasion, which may be found in the English edition of his "Pericles and Aspasia."

Three years before, 1832, occurred Black Hawk's War. Black Hawk was the leading mind among the Sauks, a tribe, that, from time immemorial had inhabited Rock river, and were allowed their rights by the French, British, and Federal governments, successively. But the border population now grasped their country, and proceeded in the usual way of committing outrages on the inhabitants; provoking retaliations which should be a plausible pretext for war.

At last, Black Hawk, in humble imitation of Pontiac and Tecumseh, combined several tribes, for the purpose of armed resistance. But one or two battles with the regular troops, who were sent to put them down, discouraged them, and Black Hawk was himself taken prisoner in the decisive battle

of Bad-axe. He therefore capitulated, and did not long survive the surrender of the object of his life. Subsequently General Scott, who had the direction of all these measures, whether of war or peace, made a definitive treaty with Keokuk, Black Hawk's successor, by means of which the tribes were removed to the borders of Lake Winnebago. To General Scott, also, was given the task of subjecting the Cherokees to the State of Georgia, which claimed their lands, as it had done those of the Creeks, in Adams' time, and on the same grounds. Jackson, unlike Adams, sympathised in the State's doctrine of sovereignty over all persons within the boundary line any State claimed, in recklessness of the rights of the Indians, expressly reserved by treaty, and which the Supreme Court had also decided were inviolable. The Colonial, Revolutionary, and Federal Governments had recognized the Cherokees as an independent people, and no outrage on any Indian nation, seemed so pathetic a case as this; perhaps, only because most is known about it. The Cherokees, at the time of the settlement of the Carolinas and Georgia, were a tribe of fire-worshippers, who seemed to be of a higher cast than their neighbors. They originally owned all the mountainous country; but their borders had been contracted, as some of their bands had been induced to sell their lands from time to time, and go to Arkansas. Those that were left were very much attached to their cultivated lands, having been converted to Christianity, and partaken of the civilization of the whites. One of their tribe had invented an alphabet, and they had a newspaper and schools.

But a rumor was spread abroad, that gold mines had been discovered in the Cherokee country, and the State of Georgia immediately determined that the Cherokees should be removed. Her legislature said, that the United States was bound to extinguish the Indian title, by purchasing their lands of the In-

dians, and handing them over to Georgia, according to the treaty of 1802. The Cherokees, however, maintained, that they were not bound to sell, whatever compacts the United States had made to buy; and they refused to sell. Georgia then legislated in such a manner, as to make the Indians out-laws, and in 1835 a treaty was made with a few of the nation, by which they promised to remove. But as the Cherokees did not acknowledge the authority of these few persons to make treaties for the whole, they refused to abide by their treaty, and it became obvious that they could be removed only by force. Force, therefore, was applied by the Federal Government, for the first time, to the Indians with whom they were in treaty. All the details of the affair are heart-rending, when we consider the Indians, who were guilty of no crime but their comparative weakness. And we cannot but lament that the Federal Government laid aside its paternal policy; It is unquestionable, that if Jackson had felt, as Adams did, that he must inquire for a "law higher than all human enactments," he might have threatened Georgia still more effectually than Adams had done.

The end was, that General Scott was directed to collect the Cherokees by a military force, and see them removed to Arkansas. In Robinson's "Book of the Army," may be found the address which Scott made to the Indians on this occasion. It betrays his deep sense of the cruelty of the act, whose moral responsibility, however, he left to be borne by the government that ordered it, while he felt bound, as its soldier, to obey its orders. His army consisted of five regiments, together with a large number of volunteers from the three States which divided, by their boundary line, the Cherokee country. Some bands of the tribe followed the advice of Scott, as given in his address, and emigrated voluntarily, seeing that if he was personally friendly, yet he would execute the orders given to



him. The rest, in the course of twenty days, were surrounded by his army, and delivered over to the civil agents. He enjoined upon his troops, humanity and sympathy towards the sufferers; and at one time, took the responsibility of suspending the Indian march, on account of the dryness of the season. He provided medical attendance and provisions for them, and even persuaded them to a general vaccination, a measure of humanity which has probably saved their tribe from extinction, while many neighboring tribes have been wholly destroyed by small pox. In fact, if the thing was to be done at all, it could not have been done better than he did it. And the United States government did all that money could do, to ameliorate the deplorable case.

At length Scott delivered up his charge to the half-breed Ross, who, having in vain implored redress at Washington, had obtained the melancholy privilege of superintending the emigration, which was at length completely effected.

The State of Georgia is responsible for this deed at the tribunal of that Justice which metes unto nations as well as to individual men, the measure that they have meted unto others. To do the deed must have demoralized it, and that is retribution. It was penal to miss the positive elevation of the general character of the State, which would have attended its discovering a better way. The removal of the Cherokees, is only the most flagrant instance of a wrong, which has been suffered by multitudes of these hapless tribes, who might have been made an important element of the United States nationality, had they been treated as men, whose equal rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness were self-evident.

For that they are incapable of improvement, civilization, and christianity, is the stereotyped lie of three centuries, contradicted by the successes of the French missionaries, and by the Cherokee civilization itself. This affair of the Cherokees,

though begun in Jackson's administration, was not finished till the year 1838, when Van Buren was President.

The Florida War also began in 1836, but extended into the administration of John Tyler. We shall devote to it the next chapter, and go into it with some minuteness, as a sample of Indian wars, that are likely to be repeated, and should therefore be understood.

### LESSON XXXIII.

#### JACKSON.

What was the first act of Jackson's administration? Why did this surprise the country? To whose influence is the measure ascribed? Who first gave words to the principle of the "Spoils to the Victors?" What objection is made to this principle; and how is it defended? Out of what controversy did the doctrine of nullification arise? Where had manufactures sprung up in America, and when? Who favored them? What considerations brought on the tariff of 1816? Who favored it? Who opposed it? What is the American system; and who was its constant champion? What change of view did Mr. Calhoun experience? Why did South Carolina take the free-trade side? How did a party for a Protective tariff grow strong in the East? In what State was proposed the tariff of 1824, and what was it? How came New England to take the side of an augmentation of the tariff in 1828? What were some of the articles, and the motives of introducing them? On what ground did Webster advocate the revision? Can we believe that Webster and Calhoun were disinterested in their complete change of positions on this subject? When did nullification declare itself a law? What principles did the nullifying convention profess? What did they proceed to declare? How was a law, accused of being

unconstitutional, legitimately to be tried, according to Calhoun, Webster, and Jackson? What did Jackson do about South Carolina's action? How did Scott and Clay manage the affair? What has probably destroyed the illusion out of which nullification grew? What was the doctrine of Webster's answer to Hayne? What follows from it? What were the opposite characteristics of Calhoun's and Webster's minds? What is the peculiar beauty of the Federal Government? What had been the history of the United States Bank? What did Jackson think about the bank? What was the final effect of his veto on Congress? What is the general opinion now concerning an United States Bank? What remarkable thing did Jackson do, in 1833? What was his idea? What was done in Congress about it? Did the banks answer the purpose that Jackson had in view, and why? What measure, carried by the Whigs, hastened their explosion? How did this operate? When did the banks stop specie payment? How did the affair of the French indemnity begin? What did Jackson say about this, in his message to the Congress, of December, 1834? What did John Quincy Adams do? What occurred on the subject in the French Chamber of Deputies, in 1835? How did Jackson answer; and what was the end of the matter? When and what was the occasion of Black Hawk's war? What did he do? And how did it end? What else was Scott called to do of a similar nature? What was the Cherokee difficulty? What was the claim of Georgia? What was the original condition and history of the Cherokees? and their present condition? What excited the Georgians to this outrage? How did the Legislature argue? What did the Cherokees reply? How then did Georgia legislate? What showed that they must be removed by force, if at all? What new course did the Federal Government pursue? How

did Scott open this business? What was his army? How did he proceed? What did he do for the comfort of the Indians after he had enclosed them? To whom did he deliver up the affair to be closed? Who is responsible for this deed? What proves that the Indians may be civilized? What year were the Cherokees removed? When did the Florida war break out?

### THE FLORIDA WAR.

In 1821, the United States government had purchased of Spain, for the sum of 12,000,000 dollars, the territory of Florida, and opened it to emigration from the United States.

Immediately there was a rush of land speculators into this country, whose few towns were thinly inhabited by Spanish and British traders, and whose interior was traversed by Indians.

The latter lived in villages, each of their palmetto huts being surrounded by little patches of ground, which they peacefully cultivated with grains and vegetables, while their rifles and fishing lines furnished them with animal food. The manner in which they had been treated by the Spanish and British traders, who had wished to gain them as customers, had rather flattered that sense of their own importance which essentially characterises the North American Indian. Hence the new settlers from the United States found them by no means disposed to give up their lands, even for money; although the whole Indian population did not consist of more than 5,000 persons. And their reluctance was not strange, for the adventuring speculators uniformly treated them with contumely and injustice.

It was soon found necessary to take measures to induce or force them into narrower boundaries. This was by no means



easy, as they even resisted assembling to treat upon the subject. In 1823, however, a commission of three, appointed by the United States government in consequence of the urgency of the settlers, succeeded in bringing thirty-two chiefs to sign a treaty at Fort Moultrie, by which they agreed to confine themselves within definitely marked boundaries, on certain conditions. The treaty was made with the Federal government, although at the instance of the territorial government of Florida; and the United States was the protector of the Indians; appointing an agent to see that the conditions of the treaty were observed on both sides. The first agent was Colonel Gad Humphreys, and his correspondence with the two governments (of Florida, and of the United States), which may be read in chapter first of Lieutenant Sprague's History of the Florida War, gives a very clear account of the circumstances in which the war originated; and is a noble exhibition of Col. Humphreys' wisdom, humanity, and justice, during his whole period of office, which was eight years. It was, in fact, only because he was so faithful to the rights of the Indians, that, at the instigation of the Florida people, including Duval, the governor, he was then put out of office.

By the treaty of Fort Moultrie (which was brought about through the influence of Col. Humphreys, who soon conciliated the respect and confidence of the Indians), they had promised to confine themselves within their prescribed boundaries; which were to be sacred to them, except that they were to allow roads for white travel, and the navigation of their rivers; they also agreed to bring to the agency fugitives from labor and justice, the expense incurred in doing so being compensated by the agent. On the other hand, the United States appropriated \$3,500 to compensate individuals who should be obliged, in settling within the prescribed boundary, to abandon improvements on their lands; and \$2,000, to facilitate the

transportation of the tribes, as well as a ration a day of corn, meat, and salt, to each individual for a year; and \$6,000, to be spent at once by the United States agent, to procure and distribute among them implements of husbandry, cattle, and hogs; also, for twenty successive years, an annual sum of \$5,000 was to be distributed, as the President of the United States should direct; and a blacksmith and gunsmith was to be paid \$1,000 a year with the expenses incidental to his shop; while another \$1,000 a year was appropriated for a school, to be established at the agency, and kept during the whole period.

All this seems reasonable and parental on the side of the United States; and, with the excellent agent, all would have gone on well and happily, but for the contrary action of the actual settlers, backed up by the government of the territory; for the letters of Col. Humphreys show that the immense difficulties which arose, are to be ascribed wholly to the rapacity and injustice of the whites. Traders held out inducements for the Indians to come into the towns to make purchases; who were then taken up, as if on trespass, and in some cases *whipped*, for no other crime than being in the settlements! The Indians were themselves slaveholders to a considerable extent; and slaves that they had bought and paid for were sometimes claimed as fugitives, and the whites wanted Indians to begin by giving up the slave claimed, and have their cause adjudicated at the courts, where Indians were not permitted to testify. This the Indians refused to do, requiring that the whites should bring forward their proofs beforehand. Experience had taught them that property once put into the hands of the whites by Indians, was irrecoverable, in all cases. According to Col. Humphreys' letters, most of the claims, if not all, were not substantiated by the whites. Yet, because the Indians stood upon their reserved rights, the money prom-

ised them by the United States was held back, which produced great distress and uneasiness; and this, and personal outrages on the part of the settlers, provoked reprisals; though, on the whole, one wonders at the patience and reasonableness displayed in the talks of the chiefs, under such excitements. The settlers acted in such a manner, that war seemed to be their object. They wished, at all events, to induce the Indians so to act, as to give a pretext for requiring their absolute removal. Their motives for desiring this removal may seem mysterious; for though Florida was a fine country for Indians, who only wanted, here and there, a patch of ground to cultivate, and lived by hunting and fishing in the pine barrens and waters to which they were acclimated; the land was nearly worthless for every body else. The only wealth of Florida was in negroes who were possessed by the Indians, or who had fled to them from the States; and the speculators thought, if the Indians were removed, they must sell these negroes for little or nothing, and that they could get possession of them.

A suggestion for removal, for another cause, came, however, from Col. Humphreys, who became entirely convinced that it was impossible for the Indians to be protected in Florida against the white settlers, by the United States Government, whose departments at Washington were besieged by the agents of the settlers, and which continually sent orders that could not be executed by negotiation or persuasion, and yet refused military aid to the agent, by which he could use force. Humphreys, therefore, proposed to his protogees to send a deputation of their number to Arkansas, to explore the country, and see if they would not like to transport themselves into it. They at first received the suggestion with great disgust; but at length agreed to send the exploring deputation, provided the colonel himself would be of the party.

But the personal hostility which Col. Humphreys had brought upon himself from the Florida settlers, was so brought to bear upon the territorial, and subsequently upon the United States Government, that, just at this juncture, he was dismissed from office. Governor Duval represented that he did not do his utmost to prevail on the Indians to comply with the wishes of the United States Government. Major Phagan, a partisan of the Florida settlers, was put into his place, whose actions, as agent, exasperated every difficulty; and subsequently Col. Gadsden was charged with the office of forcing the Indians to send this delegation to explore Arkansas. He collected, on May 9th, 1832, fifteen chiefs at Payne's Landing, where they agreed to send the delegation, and, *provided they were satisfied with the report brought back*, promised to remove from Florida, the United States paying the expenses of the removal.

But Major Phagan went with the delegation, instead of Col. Humphreys, and this was a very different thing, as the Indians distrusted Phagan as much as they confided in Humphreys. It is not easy to get a definite account of all that passed; but it is noticeable that at Fort Gibson, in Arkansas, an additional article to the treaty of Payne's Landing was signed by the members of this delegation, dated March, 1833, in which they professed themselves satisfied with the lands, and agreed that the removal should take place; while it is certain that, when they returned to Florida, they did not make a report consistent with this article, and the Indians entirely refused to abide by it; declaring that they had sent their delegation to make inquiry, not to make a decision for them. The delegation also denied that they had signed the article! The Federal Government, however, taking no notice of this denial and opposition, of which probably they were not told, ratified, in April, 1833, the treaty of Payne's Landing, with



its additional article; and General Wiley Thompson, of Georgia, was at once appointed Indian agent, and superintendent of the emigration, in place of Major Phagan; while General Clinch, of the U. S. A., was ordered to the command of the regular troops in the territory, in case the Indians should prove refractory.

They did prove refractory. Only one chief, Charley Mathlar, expressed himself willing to remove, and began to prepare for it; and his life was threatened by the rest. A council of chiefs was brought together by Colonel Thompson, in which he told them that the President would enforce the treaty. He was interrupted by groans and hisses, violent gestures, and low mutterings of vengeance. Oseola then makes his first appearance. He was not a chief, and could not lawfully speak out in council; but he sat by Micanopy, the old chief, whispering in his ear what he should say. The agent in reply to the violent demonstrations of this assembly, threatened that hereafter no annuity should be paid to the nation. On this Oseola burst out, and tauntingly replied, that he and his warriors "did not care, if they never received another dollar from their great father," and drawing his knife, and dashing it into the table, he exclaimed, "The only treaty I will execute is this."

It is plain that the proximate causes of the war were first, the "treaty of Fort Moultrie," in 1851, which did not secure its own observance on the part of the whites; secondly, the conditional treaty of Payne's landing in 1832; and that the immediate occasion of the outbreak, was the attempt, in 1834, to carry into execution this last, together with the "additional article" that bore the date of 1833.

Lieutenant Sprague says, that the number of warriors in the field when the war commenced, was "1660; to which may be added 250 negroes capable of bearing arms."

The Indians of Florida were chiefly Seminoles, a tribe of the Creek nation, whose name means Runaways, for they had separated, under a chief named Secoffee, from their brethren of Georgia, in the year 1750, and removed into Florida. Afterwards, another party of Creeks settled near Tallahassee. These tribes were at first resisted by the original inhabitants, the Mikasukies,—but were subsequently tolerated. They were all now wholly united in their resistance to the whites.

The head of the Seminole nation was Micanopy, which means Pond Governor, old, fat and lazy; but whose chief counsellor, or *sense bearer*, was Jumper, cunning, intelligent, eloquent, active and brave. Other chiefs were Little Cloud, (Ta-ha-loo-chee,) cold, silent, hating the whites; but acting with promptness and decision; Alligator—(Halpatter-Tustenugge)—shrewd, crafty, politic, with bland and attractive manners, speaking English, and unparalleled in artful tricks; Holartoochee, contrasted to Alligator by his integrity, not only towards his own people, but with the whites also: he was prudent, wise, brave and active; Wild Cat, or Coacooche—the most dangerous of all; for to him war was pastime; he became merry with the excitement of it, and more vindictive by the infliction of barbarities, and in the inefficiency of the enemy. Pursued through swamps, he would stand on some eminence at a distance, laughing and ridiculing the soldiers, as they were floundering, with their arms and accoutrements, in mud and water; but on being approached, he would vanish from sight. With a few followers, whom he bound to himself by his boldness and success, he ranged the country with a fleetness, defying pursuit. Active as a deer, with a countenance bright, playful, and attractive, though the youngest of all, for he was not thirty years of age, he laid his own plans, and acted according to his own judgment.

The chief of the Mikasukies was Arpeik, or Sam Jones,

seventy years old,—a prophet and medicine man, who acted on his warriors by incantations, midnight orgies and songs; and did not himself fight. With him were several others, Tigertail, or Thocklo-Tustenuggee—the Fish King,—plausible and attractive, but wily and deceptive; Nethlocke-Mathla, his brother, who condemned his hypocrisy, and contended with him for the government of the tribe. He was intelligent and honest, and advocated peace and friendship; but was strongly opposed to emigration. Lastly, Halleck-Tustenuggee, at first a boy, but who became, before the war was over, a master spirit.

There were also, at the beginning of the war, seventy Creeks under a chief named Octiarche, who resolutely contended six years. To these Creeks, many others from Georgia joined themselves. Oseola was born in Georgia, in 1804, and belonged to the Red Sticks of the Creeks. He was a half breed; his father being an Englishman, by the name of William Powell. His mother and himself had left his father when Oseola was only four years old, and settled in the Okefonoke Swamp; but now they lived near Fort King. He was thirty-two years old, five feet eight inches high, with a manly, frank countenance; self-possessed, and proud towards the whites, but with his adopted people—the Seminoles—distinguished in the dance, ball play and on the hunt. He openly scouted the mummeries of the prophets; declared his opinions openly; and acted with a spontaneity which commanded respect, and inspired his followers. His wife was named Chechotar, the Morning Dew, and he had four children to whom he was kind; and he always enjoined on his warriors, to spare women and children in war: “we make war and draw the scalping knife on men; let us act as men,” he said.

In the last part of the war, a tribe of a hundred warriors,

which were not known at the time of the treaty of Payne's landing, joined with the rest, under two chiefs, one named Chekika, and the other Hospetarke, whose wife was a Spanish woman. This tribe spoke a mixture of Indian and Spanish.

Such was the enemy, together with a few hundred negroes, who, whether fugitive or bound, fought furiously, the defeat of the Indians being the worst servitude for them. Against these forces the United States sent, in the course of the next seven years, more than 20,000 men; and twenty millions of dollars, were paid to militia and volunteers, or to compensate losses incurred by citizens; *exclusive* of the expenditures pertaining to the *regular army*!

Never was there such a war before. General Scott characterized it as an attempt to transport a tribe of wild Indians from one unexplored wilderness into another; by an army to whom the climate was deadly, while it suited the Indians, who knew every hiding place, and who, during the summer, when the soldiers were obliged to intermit their service, could secretly cultivate their lands in the depths of the swamps. The first and great difficulty was to *find* this crafty enemy, who, on the other hand, had every advantage of opportunity to fight from under cover and in ambush.

The massacre by Oseola of Charley Mathlar, who was the only chief that prepared for emigration, was the first earnest of war. The shooting of Colonel Thompson and Lieutenant Smith, who were carelessly walking out near Fort King, was the second; and the attack and destruction on the same day of Major Dade and a hundred men, (who were coming to reinforce Fort King, and hurry the emigrants), fairly commenced hostilities. But these events must be more circumstantially detailed.

The assassination of General Thompson was by Oseola, whom he had mortally offended by putting him in irons when



he had come to the fort with a white flag. Colonel Thompson did this because Oseola, on being reproved for his violent language, defied the power of the United States Government and its troops, in an insulting manner. He remained in confinement six days, when he feigned penitence, and was enlarged, on the promise to emigrate, and to persuade others to do so. This was a false promise; but he gained the confidence of the Colonel by bringing in seventy-six warriors, who promised to make ready for the emigration! On the 1st of January, 1836, a host of emigrants and explorers stood ready to rush in from the surrounding States, and take possession of the abandoned lands. To hasten the Indian movements, the whites committed outrages, not knowing upon what a volcano they were standing. For instance, a party of white men came upon six travelling Indians, who were in their camp, cooking a cow which they had slaughtered on their way; and, as Lieutenant Sprague says, the white men "assaulted the Indians in a most brutal manner, first taking possession of their rifles; and then examining their packs, and whipping them most severely." Other Indians came up and fired on the whites, and "to punish this act, which was called *an encroachment of the Indians*, a company of whites was soon in the field to chastise them and *protect the citizens*."

Sixty warriors were with Oseola, when he killed General Thompson and Captain Smith, who were perforated with numerous balls, scalped and mangled; immediately afterwards the sutler's shop, towards which the gentlemen were walking, was set on fire, and a man and boy killed and cut to pieces. The massacre was not made known at the fort, till some hours afterwards, but the garrison saw the smoke of the shop. As there were but forty-six men, and the strength of the enemy was unknown, the garrison awaited the expected reinforcement from Fort Brooke, in order to sally with effect. This

reinforcement was Major Dade's Command, and consisted of two companies, one hundred men in all, with nine officers. On the same day that Colonel Thompson fell, they were attacked by a body of Indians under Micanopy, Jumper, and the Alligator; the last of whom afterwards gave an account of the affair which Lieutenant Sprague reports. He said that "the Indians, were in ambush, and all rose and fired at once, which laid more than half the soldiers dead on the ground." The rest of them fired their cannon, whose balls went over the Indians' heads; and as soon as the smoke cleared, every man who stood at the cannon, was marked and killed by the Indian rifles. "Then the soldiers shouted and whooped; the officers shook their swords and swore. There was a little man, a great brave, who shook his sword at the soldiers, and said God-damn:—no rifle could hit him." A few survivors of this first attack attempted to build a log fort; but Alligator, with ten warriors, returned, and found three men within it, whom he put to death after a little parley, during which one of them seized an Indian, took away his rifle, and with the butt end of it, beat out his brains at one blow; then he ran down the road; but was followed by two Indians on horseback, and shot.

Thus commenced this seven years' war, whose details are given by Lieutenant Sprague, in a narrative, which, if it rends the heart of the reader with sympathy for the natives, who so valiantly fought for their homesteads and the graves of their fathers, after enduring fifteen years of outrage while they seem to have been really trying to keep the peace; yet, on the other hand, the moral sense is gratified, except in a few instances, by the humane conduct of the regular army, which evidently sympathized with the brave and outraged enemy, honored their patriotic courage, and used every opportunity given, to persuade them into submission and peace-

able emigration. It stands in noble contrast to the conduct of the civil officers who acted with the army, but really prevented the conquest of a peace; for it was their immediate interest to keep up the war, which they could easily do, by supplying the Indians with ammunition and provisions, during those intervals, in which the latter artfully pretended to negotiate; and provoking them to new outrages, when they were sincere. The orders from Washington were influenced by these corrupt and selfish intriguers; and perpetually reiterated that the Indians *must be removed*; notwithstanding the representations of all the successive generals, that this was requiring an impossibility of the army, who could annihilate them, as easily as they could remove them; and could do neither, unless it could *find* them, in the 47,000 square miles, over which they were scattered!

After some fighting by Generals Gaines and Clinch, with little determinate issue, General Scott was made Commander-in-Chief, who took the field the 22d of February, and operated till the 1st of June; with scarce any result except to wear his army down with constant watchings, tedious marches and disappointments, tracking an invisible enemy who had in such warfare, every advantage over them. Yet Lieutenant Sprague declares that Scott did all that could be done. It was called a failure, however, by the people of Florida; and he was arraigned before a Court martial, where he defended himself successfully, by merely giving a history of the campaign, which is published by Lieutenant Sprague, pages, 114—157, and by which every reader can judge him. He denies having failed in any thing that he found it possible to undertake; and shows that he was prevented from doing what was expected, by *the lateness of the order he received*, and the consequent *short term of service possible* before the hot weather; *the cross operations of General Gaines*; *the insufficient means*

*for transportation of his troops ; insufficient supplies of hard bread and bacon ; the heat of the climate ; badness of water ; sickness ; the bad forage and grazing ; the want of roads and bridges ; the want of an auxiliary Indian force ; the want of guides.* It appears also, from this defence, that the unreasonable complaints of the people of Florida were the real cause of the accusations against General Scott. The Court of inquiry decided that he was not only free from blame, but that his campaign was well devised, and prosecuted with energy, steadfastness and ability.

The Governor of the Territory, C. M. Call, succeeded Scott in the command. The ensuing summer was unusually sickly and the Indians were dispersed, as usual at the season, cultivating their lands, and providing for the next campaign, but occasionally sallying out, butchering women and children, express riders and trains. On the 10th of June, Oseola, at the head of 250 warriors, attacked Fort Miconopy, but retired after a fight of an hour and a half under the broiling sun. August 12th, he was attacked, together with a band of 300 warriors; and after an hour's battle, driven into an extensive hammock.

Later in the year, General Jesup took the chief command, by whom 750 Creek Indians were added to the army, and paid as militia; they wore white turbans to distinguish them from the enemy. These forces attempted to drive the Indians from Wakoo Swamp, where they were said to be in great numbers. One battle lasted four hours, when the troops retreated, the Indians having retired further inward. It seemed unfortunate that they did not pursue their purpose, and take prisoners the Indian families which were sheltered in the swamp, as it might have made the warriors surrender. Jesup pushed the war with great zeal and skill, but with little perceptible success. The Indians occasionally entered into



truces, and promised to go, especially after some chief and his band had surrendered and gone to Arkansas. Five chiefs agreed with Jesup, in March, 1837, that their bands should cease hostilities and emigrate; and said that Oseola and his band would join them. Jesup then thought the war at an end, and began to discharge his troops. But Oseola and Coo-cooche came one night into the camp of 700 Indians, who were collected, waiting to go on board the transports to New Orleans—and turned their minds, so that at daybreak they had all disappeared, being well clothed and provisioned, while their crops were far advanced; and the sickly season precluded military operations against them.

A letter of Jesup's, is given by Lieutenant Sprague, p.p. 184, 197, in which he says, that, during the period of his command, 2,400 Indians and negroes were taken or surrendered, besides those killed. Many villages were also destroyed, and their cattle, horses, and other property were either taken or destroyed; while the swamps and hammocks were thoroughly explored. February 11th, 1838, Jesup wrote another letter to the War Department, in which he said he had always thought the Indians should be removed out of the borders of the States, by the United States, as the only means of protecting them from the operation of severe laws made against them by the State authorities; but he thought that this should be done only when the border population really pressed upon the Indian territory; and that it was at too great sacrifice that the present object was pursued, of "removing a band of savages from one unexplored wilderness to another." The suggestion was answered by the Secretary of War, Mr. Poinsett, with the remark, that it was *useless to recur to principles*, or array arguments; the removal *must take place*; and the army must accomplish it. The battle of Okechobee, in which Col. Taylor commanded, was the most important that took place

under Jesup. On the Indian side 380 warriors were engaged; 102 men and 9 officers were wounded on the American side, and 22 men and 5 officers killed.

Oseola had been captured by the Spanish General Hernandez, on the 22d of October, 1837. He had come to Fort Marion with a white flag, and Hernandez was ordered by General Jesup to take him prisoner, unless he complied with the assurances he had formerly made, to surrender his band. His fate was melancholy. Imprisonment broke his spirit. He refused sustenance, and would see no visitors. All efforts to cheer him and represent Arkansas as a desirable home, failed. He expired after a short illness, broken-hearted.

In May, 1838, General Taylor succeeded Jesup in the command. His plan was to divide the territory into military districts twelve miles square, and post twenty or thirty men, half of them mounted, in the centre of each, to scout the district every other day, and to be responsible that the hammocks and swamps should be clear of Indians. The execution of this energetic plan was interrupted by the arrival of Major General Macomb, in May, 1839, empowered by the President to make arrangements with the Seminoles. This he thought he had done, after having met some of the chiefs, and arranged that they and their bands should remove beyond a certain boundary towards the south, in the space of sixty days. Lt. Sprague gives Macomb's letter to Poinsett, p.p. 229-232, in which he describes this whole negotiation.

The war was now supposed to be ended, and hundreds of the Florida settlers returned to their plantations. For a month all was peaceful; the Indians cultivating their lands. But in the last of July, the massacres began again; and Lieutenant Colonel Harney's command of 300 men, who had gone to establish a trading house, for which General Macomb had made arrangement, in order to meet the convenience of the

Indians, was attacked, while they were in bed, before day-break, and 24 killed. Thus the Florida war was renewed in all its horrors.

The forces of the territory seem to have joined with the United States troops in 1840, with more good-will than before; and it was they who sent to Havana for bloodhounds, with the purpose of employing them to track the Indians. Thirty-three were obtained, at a cost of \$5000; and they were muzzled and put on the track. But these dogs were accustomed to the scent of negroes, and could not be trained to hunt Indians. The scheme proved a total failure. It seems that General Taylor approved this measure, and Mr. Poinsett authorized it. But both expressed that the purpose was, for the dogs to find the Indians merely, not worry them; and therefore they were muzzled.

In May, 1840, Taylor, at his own request, resigned the command, and was succeeded by General Armistead. The sickness of the troops, the treachery of the Indians, (who would make truces, and pretend to be gathering themselves for emigration, but when, by these means, they had availed themselves of the opportunity of supplying themselves with ammunition, &c., would go off, to re-appear soon after, for massacre), baffled all the energy of the General, and discouraged the army. The murder of a Mrs. Montgomery brought on an engagement with her escort, by whom thirty-two warriors, and sixty women and children were secured and sent to Arkansas in June.

The authorities of Washington, harassed by the complaints of the Florida settlers, now rescinded their instructions to induce the Indians to an *amicable* surrender, and required Armistead to prosecute the war with vigor. More than a million of dollars were appropriated and put at the command of the General, who used some of this to tempt them to the

removal. But the most zealous and intelligent of the Indians, reverencing the soil in which were the graves of their dead, and around which they believed the departed spirits hovered, declared vengeance against every Indian who should put himself within the sphere of temptation. Their fanaticism increased, and was manifested by new massacres. Halleck Tustennuggee kept the whole country, from St. Augustine southwest to Fort King, in constant alarm. But Lt. Alburtis succeeded at last in driving him from the locality, and Waxahedjo (another chief, who was surprised by Captain Beall, as he was examining the mail bags of a postman he had killed, and whose head was roasting on the fire), was driven into a pond, and shot.

Lieutenant Colonel Harney, in December, 1840, pursued the Indians who occupied the Everglades, with a hundred men, killed Chekika, and took six of his men, who were executed on the spot; and the Indians, seeing with what perseverance and skill the troops threaded the most intricate passages of the unexplored region, abandoned the Everglades, proffering peace, and making offers of emigration. These were accepted, and believed to be sincere, and the Indians were clothed and fed for removal; but the propitious season returning, they simultaneously returned to the Everglades, laughing at the credulity of the whites.

It is impossible to give all the details of the seven years of war. At one time, Coacooche was induced by Micco, who had surrendered, to come in with his band, and have a talk. He was fantastically arrayed in parts of a wardrobe plundered from a theatrical party. He himself sported the nodding plumes of Hamlet; and his companion was arrayed in the modest garb of Horatio; while Richard the Third's purple and ermine decorated another, who wore a no less dark and revengeful visage than the old English assassin. The rest were



ornamented with spangles, crimson vests, and feathers. His manner was self-possessed, his speech fluent, and he professed himself secure under the protection of the white flag of truce. At the proper moment, his daughter, who had been taken from him as he was returning a little while before from a bloody massacre, was allowed to go to him unhurt; and his surprise and gratitude at this unexpected grace, brought tears, so unaccustomed to the eyes of his race. He actually wept. Col. Worth seized the soft moment, to urge the close of the war, and Coacooche promised to go and bring in his band. He remained four days in the camp, and departed with his child, unmolested, promising to effect this; but he only occasionally returned, pretending to lament that he could not collect the band; and in every instance that he returned, he supplied himself with new munitions of war.

At one time, friendly Indians were sent for from Arkansas, to be sent out as ambassadors, to make representations of the advantages of the emigration. Perhaps they did the contrary. At all events, the fanaticism of patriotism seemed to increase in the Indians, who enlisted in their behalf the admiration of the United states army, which is strongly expressed by Lieut. Sprague.

In May, 1841, Gen. Armistead retired, and the command was passed over to Col. Worth. It had now become obvious that the Indians' great ally was the summer season, which was to them what the depot and magazine is to the civilized, affording them the means whereby to prosecute the war the other eight months. Col. Worth saw this, and his plan was made to prosecute the war through the summer season, which he deliberately proposed to his army. That he should do this, and that the army should accept the proposal with alacrity, proves, in both parties, the most self sacrificing devotion to the duty a soldier swears to do. Lieut. Sprague says:

“An imperative sense of duty alone gave to the officer and soldier resolution and fortitude; no glorious idea animated to duty, and urged on to victory; no principle of liberty or right, for which he might shed his blood and mantle his name with glory; the clarion which led him to battle was the war-whoop; his sword, the scalping-knife; his standard, the scalps of red men; his prisoners, innocent women and children!”

The simple injunction given by Col. Worth to the officers was, to “find the enemy, capture, and exterminate him.” About 3,500 men took the field the first of June; more than a thousand being on the sick list. An attempt was made upon Halleck-Tustenuggee at first, whose village was found and destroyed; but it had already been deserted. The troops who had marched forty-four miles, and then waded through Lake Fancee-Suffekce, were disgusted and dispirited, on being obliged to retrace their steps, without having seen a single Indian.

On the 15th of June, news was brought to Colonel Worth, that Wild Cat was captured by Major Childs, together with twelve warriors and three negroes, and that he had sent them all in irons to New Orleans, on the way to Arkansas. Colonel Worth, with the idea of making use of Wild Cat's influence in bringing in the other Indians, determined to send for him back. The interview between the Colonel and these prisoners, on board the transport in which they were brought back, is most expressive of the feeling of the regular army on the one side, and of the moral position of the Indians on the other. When led up from below the prisoners came into the presence of the United States officers very slowly, their feet being chained together, so that they could move them only a few inches at a time. They were all seated, with their manacled hands on their knees, and their heads drooping, when the Colonel, with a respectful gesture, took the hand of Wild

Cat, and said, "Coacooche, I take you by the hand as a warrior, a great brave; you have fought long and with a true and strong heart for your country. I take your hand with feelings of pride; you love your country as we do ours; it is sacred to you; the ashes of the dead are sacred to you, and to the Seminoles. Coacooche—these feelings have caused much bloodshed—much distress—horrid murders; it is now time that the Indian felt the power and strength of the white man. Like the oak you may bear up for many years, against strong winds; the time must come when it will fall: your time has arrived. You have withstood the blasts of five winters, and the storms of thunder, lightning and wind, for five summers; the branches are now fallen; and the tree, burnt at the roots, is prostrated.

"Coacooche, I am your friend. So is your great father at Washington. What I say to you is true; my tongue is not forked like a snake; my word is for the happiness of the red man.

"Coacooche, you are a great warrior; the Indians throughout your country look to you as a leader; by your councils they are governed. This war has lasted five years; much blood has been shed, much innocent blood; you have made your hands and the ground red with the blood of women and children. This war must now end. You are the man to do it; you must and shall end it.

"I have sent for you, that through the exertions of yourself and men, you might induce your whole band to emigrate. Select three or five of these men to carry your talk; name the time it will require to effect an interview with the Indians in the woods; it shall be granted; but I tell you, and I wish your relatives and friends told, that, unless they fulfil your demands, yourself and these warriors shall be hanged upon the yard-arms of this vessel, with the irons on your hands and

feet, on the sunset of the day appointed for their return. I tell you this, that we may well understand each other. I do not wish to frighten you. You are too brave a man for that! But I say what I mean; and I will do it. It is for the benefit of the white and red man alike that this war should end. And, Coacooche, *it is you who must end it.*"

The Indians raised their manacled hands to hide the tears that slowly coursed down their rugged faces; and the United States officers were not unmoved. Coacooche rose up, his manly form quivering with excitement, and in a subdued tone began: "I was once a boy; then I saw the white man afar off. I hunted in these woods, first with a bow and arrow, then with a rifle. I saw the white man, and was told he was my enemy. I could not shoot at him as I would at a wolf or bear; yet like these he came upon me; horses, cattle, and fields he took from me. He said he was my friend, but he abused our women and children, and told us to go from the land. Still he gave me his hand in friendship; we took it, and whilst we took it, he held a snake in the other: his tongue was forked; he lied and stung us. I asked but a small piece of these lands; a place where I could lay the ashes of my kindred. This was not granted me; I was put in prison; I escaped; I have been again taken; you have brought me back; I am here; *I feel the irons in my heart.* I have listened to your talk; you and your officers have taken us by the hand. I thank you for bringing me back. I can now see my warriors, my wife and child; *the Great Spirit thanks you*; the heart of the poor Indian thanks you. We know but little; we have no books which tell all things; but we have the Great Spirit, the moon and stars; these told me last night you would be our friend. I give you my word—the word of a warrior—a chief—a brave; it is the word of Coacooche. It is true I have fought like a man; so have my warriors; but



the whites are too strong for us. I wish now to have my band around me, and go to Arkansas. You say I must end the war? Look at these irons! Can I go to my warriors?—Coacooche chained! No—do not ask me to see them. I wish never to tread upon my land, unless I am free. If I can go to them unchained, they will follow me, but they will not obey me, when I talk to them in irons. They will say my heart is weak; that I am afraid. Could I go free, they would surrender and emigrate.”

Col. Worth reiterated that he could not be unchained till his whole band was in; that he must send to them his talk, for he could not go to them; that if they did not come in by the appointed day, “the sun will shine upon the bodies of each of you, hanging in the wind.” On the other hand, if they did come in, he should be unchained to speak to them.

The convulsive expression of Coacooche’s face showed that he believed him. The vessel in which he and his warriors were chained lay moored two miles from shore. There was no hope of rescue. He consulted with the warriors around him, and selected five for his messengers. To these he spoke long and earnestly, his low guttural tones expressing the reality of the eloquence. “Has not Coacooche sat with you by the council-fire, at midnight, when the wolf and the white man were around us? Have I not led the war-dance and sung the song of the Seminole? Did not the spirits of our mothers, our wives, and our children stand around us? Have I not made the war-path red with blood; and has not the Seminole always found a home in my camp? Then, will the warriors of Coacooche desert him? No! if your hearts are bad, let me see them now; take them in your hands, and let me know they are dark with bad blood; but do not, like a dog, bite me, so soon as you turn your backs.

“If Coacooche is to die, he can die like a man. It is not

my heart that shakes; no, it never trembles; but I feel for those now in the woods, pursued night and day by the soldiers; for those who fought with us, till we were weak. The sun shines bright to-day; the day is clear; so let your hearts be. The Great Spirit will-guide you. At night, when you camp, take these pipes and tobacco; build a fire, when the moon is up and bright; dance round it; then let the fire go out, and just before the break of day, when the deer sleeps, and the moon whispers to the dead, you will hear the voices of those who have gone to the Great Spirit; they will give you strong hearts and heads to carry the talk of Coacooche. Say to my band that my feet are chained; I cannot walk; yet I send them my word, as true from the heart as if I were on the war-path or at the deer-hunt. The head and heart of Coacooche says to you, that the great white chief will be kind to us. He says that when my band is all in, I shall again walk my land free. Take these sticks; here are thirty-nine; one for each day; this, larger than the others, with blood upon it, is the fortieth. When this only remains, say to my people, 'With the setting sun of this day, Coacooche hangs like a dog, with none but white men to hear his last words. Come, then; come by the stars, as Coacooche has led you to battle! Come, for the voice of Coacooche speaks to you!' Say to my wife and child—"The eloquent young chieftain here paused, and turned away his head, while tears flowed over his youthful and manly countenance. No sound broke the solemn silence whose pathos all felt. Silently the soldiers took off the irons of the five messengers, and Coacooche pressed each by the hand as he passed over the side of the vessel to the boat; giving one a silk handkerchief and breastpin, he said, "Give these to my wife and child."

And true was it, that, on the fortieth day, the messengers returned with the whole band. When told of this, Coacooche

exclaimed, with his old dashing manner, "Take off my irons, that I may meet my warriors like a man;" and when this was done, he waved his arms, stretched his form to its utmost height, and uttered a shrill whoop. It was answered by his band upon the shore, to which he was immediately conducted. He addressed them briefly: "Warriors! Coacooche speaks to you. You have listened to my word; I thank you! The Great Spirit speaks in our councils. The rifle is hid; the white and the red man are friends. I have given my word for you; and I am free. Then let my word be true." And it proved so. Coacooche, from this time forward, worked faithfully, and persuaded band after band of the Indians to come in, and consent to emigrate. He had now determined to go to Arkansas himself, and he wished as many as possible to go too. For a while he worked from the motive of getting the irons taken off the rest of his companions. This was effected, when as many bands were brought in as he thought it possible for him to bring. Then the whole party was sent to Arkansas together, by sea.

But more than a hundred warriors were still known to be left; and the army, divided into small parties, carried desolation into every haunt of the Indians, destroying their corn fields, and huts, breaking up their summer amusements and employments, and traversing swamps and hammocks, where the undergrowth was so rank that the troops were obliged to clear their way with hatchets; or they waded through water, covered with a green scum, and whose disturbance filled the air with putrid effluvia. More than 2000 soldiers were added to the sick list by dysentery and fever, but the remainder persevered. Halleck Tustenuggee with thirty-five followers was found to be at Haws Creek, from which he made assaults, to guard against which, additional forces were sent to St. Augustine, and other points, and Major Plympton undertook to



drive the band from their hiding place. Lieutenant Sprague tells all the details of the taking of Halleck Tustenuggee, of Tigertail and others, who, as soon as taken, were sent off to New Orleans.

But the fewer the numbers of the Indians left, the harder it was to find them. Worth at last wrote a letter to Scott representing this. He said there could be but about seventy left and their very smallness of number made the pursuit of them continually more hopeless; he respectfully submitted that it became more and more unwise to track them at such immense cost of life and money. His views prevailed; and the remnant of Indians were induced to promise to confine themselves upon the river Carlosohatchee, a beautiful region which could be cultivated with grains and vegetables, whose lands abound with game, and the shore with oysters and fish.

It will be observed, that we have followed implicitly the account of Lieutenant Sprague, whose volume is a mine of information, as it contains the actual correspondence of the Indian agents and officers of the army with the Departments of Washington. Of course, in its 550 pages, there are a thousand details for which our school history has not room; but the work can be consulted by such as please. It sadly wants an index, and its spirit and matter deserve a more artistic setting forth than probably was possible for the active soldier. The letter of the people of Florida, first published in the *St. Augustine Herald*, Sept. 16, 1845, and which enjoins upon the people a more faithful and humane execution of the provisions of the last treaty, than the former treaties received at their hands; is alike creditable to his head and heart. He was for some years, Indian agent. It is satisfactory to know that seven years war has not been able to quench the confidence of the Indians, in the good faith and humanity of the United States army. To inspire such a feeling in the poor and



unprotected, is certainly a rare and the highest glory of a military body. Unfortunately, it is not shared by the State militia.

#### LESSON XXXIV.—FLORIDA WAR.

When was Florida bought? and for what sum? and what immediately ensued? How was the country inhabited? How did the Indians live? How many Indians were there? Why were they not disposed to sell their lands? Why was it difficult to compress them into narrower boundaries? What were the circumstances of the treaty of Fort Moultrie? What was the attitude of the United States? Who was the first appointed Indian agent? How is his character displayed, and what was it? How came he to be put out of office? What was the treaty of Fort Moultrie? What compensation did the United States allow? What prevented things from going on happily? What do the letters of Colonel Humphreys show respecting the injustice done to the Indians? What seemed to be the object of the Florida settlers? Why did they wish for this removal? Why did Humphreys propose removal to the Indians themselves? What suggestion did he make to the Indians? and with what result? Why was he dismissed from office? Who was put into his place? With what effect? What office was given to Colonel Gadsden? What can you tell of the treaty of Payne's landing? Who went with the exploring delegation? What additional article was made at Fort Gibson? Why would not the tribes abide by it? What did the United States Government do respecting it? and what was done to facilitate removal? Did the Indians prove refractory? How did the several chiefs take the communications of Colonel Thompson? What were the proximate causes of the war? How does Lieutenant

Sprague estimate their fighting forces? What were the predominant tribes? What was the history of this tribe? What other tribes were there? What do you remember about Micanopy? Jumper? Ta-ha-loo-chee? Halpater-Tustenuggee? Holastoochee? Coacoochee? Arpeik? Thocklo-Tustenuggee? Nethlocke-Mathlar? Halleck Tustenuggee? Octiarche? Oseola? Chekika? Hospetarke? Why did the negroes fight with the Indians? How many regular troops were sent against these Indians in the next seven years? What was paid beside their wages? How did Scott characterize this war? What was the first earnest of war? What were the next two? Tell the circumstances of Thompson's death? What outrages of the whites preceded the massacre of Dade and his party? Give the Alligator's reminiscences of that affair? What various impression on the mind is made by Lieutenant Sprague's narrative of the war? How could the civil officers keep up the war, and why? What orders impossible to be obeyed came constantly from Wash-ton? Why? Who was made Général-in-Chief and what did he do in 1836? How did he defend himself against the charge of failure? Was he acquitted? Who succeeded him in the command? What is the history of the ensuing season? What was done June 10th? What August 12th? Later in the year, who took the command? What reinforcement did he bring? What happened at Wahoo Swamp? What success did Jesup have? When did Jesup think the war at an end, and why? What showed him his mistake? What account did Jesup give of his success, while he was General? What letter did he write to the War Department? What did Mr. Poinsett answer? What do you remember about the battle of Okechobee? What was the fate of Oseola? Who succeeded Jesup in May, 1838? What was his plan? What

interrupted its execution? What was Macomb's treaty? Where is to be found his own account of it? When did the war renew itself, and how? What do you remember about the campaign of 1840? What about the bloodhounds? Why did Armistead take Taylor's place? What baffled the General and discouraged the army? What do you remember about the murder of a Mrs. Montgomery? What new orders came from Washington to Armistead? What money was put at Armistead's disposal, and what did he do with some of it? What effect had this on the patriotic Indians? What do you remember of Halleck-Tustenuggee, at this time? and Waxihadjo? Chekika? What stipulations followed? Were they proved sincere? What do you remember of a temporary truce with Coacoochee? Why were Indians sent for from Arkansas? Did this succeed? How did the Indians appear? When did Colonel Worth take the command? What did Colonel Worth see was the Indian ally? What plan did he propose to the army? Did they accept? Why? What does Lieutenant Sprague say of the moral position of the army? What injunction did Colonel Worth give to the army? How many men took the field? What was their first attempt and success? What news was brought to Colonel Worth the 15th of June? What did Colonel Worth then do, and with what idea? Describe the place of the interview between Coacoochee and Colonel Worth? What did he say to Coacoochee? What did Coacoochee reply? What did Worth rejoin? How did Coacoochee take this? What did he say to the band; and his envoys? Did they return? What did he then? Was he henceforth faithful? Why did he work so zealously? What number of warriors were left? How did the army proceed against them? How many soldiers became sick? What was done to get possession of Halleck Tustenuggee? What efficient things were done? What

letter did Worth write to Scott? What was done in consequence? What is said about Lieutenant Sprague and his book?

### MARTIN VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION.

Martin Van Buren succeeded to the Presidential chair in 1837, being borne into office by the Jackson party, of whose administration his own may be considered the necessary supplement. But he came in by a bare majority, just as the financial difficulties came to a crisis, and the banks stopped specie payment. The measure that he devised to meet the exigency of the times, though denounced at the moment by the merchants as adding insult to injury, has been called by his friends "the silver trumpet of order," which, sounding over the chaos of affairs, brought a prosperous community out of what seemed to be "the wreck of matter." It was an extension of the principle of the specie circular that had been addressed to the public land agents, and which was now addressed to all custom-house officers and postmasters; more than reviving Webster's provision of 1816, by requiring that all dues to the government should be paid in gold and silver; and that this should not be deposited in any bank whatever, but in the United States treasury itself, of which branches must be established in every city where there was a custom-house; that is, the strong-box of every custom-house and post-office was to be a sub-treasury of the government, whose money was no longer to be lent for trading purposes to any body.

The immediate effect was to heighten the distress, and the government made the compromise of receiving, in payment of dues, its own protested drafts. That is, when the government had a debt to pay, and gave a draft on a bank, and this bank did not pay, the protest was indicated on the face of the draft



and then, when it was presented to the sub-treasury, it would be taken there instead of gold and silver.

But the ultimate effect was to force the banks to resume specie payments. Merchants had agreed to receive *the paper* of the non-paying banks; but as the government would not receive it, it was necessary to make an exertion to get specie, which they did, or failed at once.

All parties now are nearly agreed in commending this measure, whose ultimate effect has been to check that over-trading and speculation which grew out of the system of government banks. As merchants are obliged to draw specie out of the banks to pay their duties, and the banks have not government money to lend to them, wherewith they may buy goods in foreign countries, or speculate in this, monopolising land, and multiplying manufactories too rapidly, business life has become more moderate and safe. There were individuals, who counted themselves of the opposition party, who were sagacious enough to see the wisdom of the plan, and its ultimate bearings, at once; but as it took time to develop the advantages of it, and its disadvantages were immediate, the mass of the business world raised a storm of opposition; and Mr. Van Buren, unlike Gen. Jackson, had no reputation of military glory, and was deficient in the power of inspiring that personal confidence which carried Jackson triumphantly through every thing that he took the responsibility of doing, from the hanging of Ambrister and Arbuthnot, and laying a city under martial law, to the removal of the deposits, and making war on South Carolina. Mr. Van Buren had not gained the heart of the people; and all his labor upon the financial affairs of the country was popularly called an impertinent "meddling with the currency."

This sub-treasury bill was proposed at the extra session of

the Congress of 1837, and then rejected; but, in 1839, it passed both houses of Congress, and became a law.

An insurrection in Canada began in the last of the same year that Van Buren was made President; and as it was believed that the ultimate purpose of it was to have Canada annexed to the United States, some Americans on the frontier took part in it; on which Van Buren made a proclamation, saying that the United States should not protect any of its citizens in this intermeddling, which was liable to involve the United States in a war with Great Britain. During his administration, difficulties came to a crisis, also, on the North-eastern boundary, with respect to a tract of land which both nations claimed. The difficulty was appeased, *for the time*, by the mediation of Gen. Scott, who was sent thither with some United States troops, but who did the thing peacefully, leaving it to be finally settled by diplomatic negotiation. Meanwhile troubles were arising in the South-west, which did not come to a head until the term of Tyler.

#### LESSON XXXV.—VAN BUREN.

When did Martin Van Buren attain to office? What was the state of the country? What was his measure of remedy? What was the immediate effect? What compromise was the government forced to make? What has been the ultimate good effect of the sub-treasury and specie payment system? Why did it raise a storm of opposition? What was the date of this measure? What do you remember about the Canada difficulties, and Van Buren's proclamation thereupon? What, of the North-eastern boundary difficulty? How are the several events of Jackson's and Van Buren's terms represented on the plate? (Teacher can look at the table, and name each one, asking, How is it represented?)

## WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

An immense excitement on the Presidential election, produced by the dissatisfaction of the commercial community, brought an entire political change in 1841, and the Whigs carried the election of William Henry Harrison over Martin Van Buren. His military prestige and western residence were large elements of his success. But his term proved short; in one month he died, leaving the government to be directed by the Vice President, who was by no means identical with him in political sentiment, and had been put on the ticket with him, by way of conciliating the South, and Virginia in particular. A complete change of the officials of the country had, however, already been made; and Tyler did not altogether sweep these out, when he succeeded, although he leaned in the last part of his time, to the party of Abstractionists and State sovereignty men—led by John C. Calhoun.

## JOHN TYLER'S ADMINISTRATION

Was the most generally unpopular one, during the time of it, that has yet occurred in the United States History. For an extra session of Congress had been called by Harrison, which went into session under Tyler, in which was repealed the Sub-Treasury Bill, and a general bankrupt law was passed, which offended the Democrats; but two separate bills were brought forward for chartering a new United States Bank, which were both rejected by the executive veto, on which all the cabinet resigned, except Daniel Webster; and the Whigs throughout the country denounced him.

One thing universally approved and rejoiced in, took place in Tyler's administration; and that was the Ashburton treaty,

negotiated by Mr. Webster, which settled the north eastern boundary definitely, as is indicated on the maps of the United States published since 1842. In the same year, Colonel Worth brought the Florida war to an end.

But the great event of Tyler's administration, was the annexation of Texas. This requires some explanation. Texas has been called the Italy of America, so favored is its climate. It comprehends the country between the Sabine River and the Rio del Norte, otherwise called the Rio Grande and Rio Bravo.

Some questions arose in 1821, when Florida was ceded by Spain to the United States, as to the boundary line; and something was said of the old boundary of Louisiana being the Rio Bravo. But the Sabine river was at length agreed upon, and Texas was acknowledged on all sides to be a part of Mexico, before the latter country declared itself independent of Spain.

Already, a colony of North Americans, led by Stephen F. Austin, had settled at a little more than a hundred miles from the mouth of the Rio Brazos.

This foreign colonization of Texas was favored by Mexico, who wished to have her frontiers protected from the *Camanches*, and other warlike tribes of Indians,—to increase her national wealth by the industry and enterprise of North American settlers; and because she saw how the United States had prospered by favoring free immigration. But her colonization law of 1823, imposed certain conditions; first, limiting the number of immigrants to 300 families, who were to be Catholics from Louisiana, and who would have their children taught Spanish; all traffic in slaves was forbidden; and all slaves born in Texas were to be liberated at fourteen years of age; and no slaves of any age were to be introduced into the colony after the year 1827. The inducements offered



to colonists were security of person and property, and liberty to introduce, free of duty, their instruments of husbandry, utensils, and machinery, to the amount of 2000 dollars.

In 1824, Mexico adopted a Federal Constitution, under which it was provided that for four years no taxes should be imposed on foreign emigrants; and for Texas and Coahuila, the period of this privilege was afterward extended, while large bounties of land were granted to every emigrant, according to his occupation and wants. But these privileges were confined to such as should emigrate before 1840. The government was in very friendly relations with Austin, but in 1827, it sent a military force against one Edwards, who had received a grant near Nagadoches, and was speculating on it by selling land to emigrants. Austin's colony joined the Mexicans in driving this Edwards from the country; yet the Mexicans began, from this time, to suspect all the colonists of bad faith, and put garrisons in the country at Nagadoches, Bexar, Goliad, Anahuac, Galveston, Velasco, St. Teran, Victoria, and Tenoxticlan.

This was bad; because Mexican soldiers are an especially demoralizing influence. The ostensible object of these garrisons, was to protect the colonists from the Indians, and collect revenue; but the real one was, to secure the power of the Mexican Government, which, in 1829, had declared all slaves throughout Mexico to be free; an act that the Texan settlers considered to be an invasion of their reserved rights, and of which the Governor of Coahuila and Texas obtained a revocation, from Guerrero, the President, so far as regarded Texas.

In 1830, however, the Government passed a law prohibiting further immigrations from the United States into Mexico, on the ground that the North Americans violated the colonization laws of 1823 and 1824.

The colonists denounced this law as outrageous, and, attempted to violate it, by introducing some new emigrants; their commissioner for this purpose was arrested by the military commander, and the election of another was prevented by military force; also several Anglo-American colonists were arrested and imprisoned. On this, others assembled, and demanded the freedom of their compatriots, when a military skirmish took place, the end of which was, that the Mexicans were obliged to yield up their prisoners. Soon after, the Texans took part in a civil commotion which occurred in Mexico, and proved themselves very formidable, and by a subsequent arrangement with the Liberal party, whom they aided to power, succeeded to free themselves from the oppression of the military garrisons. This was in 1832. But in 1834, Santa Anna usurped the Dictatorship of the Mexican Republic, paralyzed its State Constitutions, and established a central government.

Texas made a protest against this despotic proceeding, and a convention having been called at San Felipe, and a State constitution drawn up, representing their reasons for wishing a separation from Coahuila, and having laws of their own, Austin was appointed to go to Mexico as commissioner, and gain an acknowledgment of their rights to this State Constitution, on the ground of those guaranteed by the Mexican Constitution of 1824. He thought the time not well chosen; but he went, and urged the admission of the Texan State Constitution upon Mexico, saying that the evils of their want of an efficient administration of government were so great, that "if they were not remedied, the people of Texas would themselves seek a remedy."

After ten months of vain negotiation, he wrote back that the people of Texas had best make a State of themselves *de facto*; and this letter being treacherously sent to Mexico by

the Ayuntamiento of Bexar, to whom it was addressed, Austin was pursued on his own way home, taken back to Mexico as a prisoner, and thrown into the dungeons of the *Inquisition*, without books, pen, or paper.

This act ultimately produced the Declaration of Independence in Texas, though Austin, from his prison, when he was able to write, recommended peace, knowing, as he did, that most of the quiet business people of Texas desired peace; and because he thought that Santa Anna was their friend, and would remedy the evils they complained of, establish trial by jury, and give its own court to Texas. There was a strong peace party, but the land speculators made a war party; and the capture of a Texan trading vessel by Capt. Thompson, of the Mexican navy, who had been ordered to Galveston merely to make some inquiries; also a military requisition made for Zavala, a gentleman who had fled from Mexico to Texas, on account of his liberal principles; and, finally, a Mexican order for the citizens of several Texan towns to deliver up their arms, kindled the war; Gen. Austin meanwhile having returned and become the centre of influence, on his giving his voice for war.

Before December, 1835, volunteers having come from Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee, and Louisiana, to assist the Texans, who had appealed to their former countrymen for help, every Mexican soldier was driven beyond the Rio Grande. Then the Texan government was regularly organized, and instead of longer contending merely for their rights as a State of Mexico under the annihilated Constitution of 1824, a declaration of complete independence was formally made.

Santa Anna immediately collected an army, and invaded Texas; and, after terrible losses at Alamo and Goliad, the Texans, under Gen. Houston, gained the decisive battle of San Jacinto, taking Santa Anna prisoner.

With him, Gen. Houston, in the presence of the Mexican Secretary of War, made a treaty of peace; Santa Anna, as Dictator of Mexico, acknowledging the independence of Texas. But as the Mexican government did not acknowledge the validity of a treaty made by Santa Anna while a prisoner, the Texans were obliged still to maintain themselves by force of arms, in which they were assisted by volunteers from almost every part of the United States; and the government sent an army to guard their frontier against the Indians, and, in 1837, acknowledged their independence. The Texans then applied, through Mr. Forsyth, Secretary of State of the United States, for admission into the Union; but Van Buren entirely discouraged it. This was not unknown to the people of the United States, and parties began to be formed on both sides of the question. The Southern States were favorable to it, as Texas could be made into several slave States; and the argument of the opposition to it may be found most ably stated in Dr. William Ellery Channing's letter to Henry Clay, on the annexation of Texas. The opposite sides of the slavery question characterized the two parties generally; but even Mr. Clay opposed it in 1844, when Tyler induced a renewal of the application by Texas. He took the ground, not only that it would involve the United States in war with Mexico, but that it was "compromising the national character," and would extend the area of slavery, *which he deprecated*.

Tyler, however, himself signed a treaty of annexation, and submitted it to Congress. It was rejected in 1844. But the next year a bill was passed, authorizing the President, under certain restrictions, to admit Texas into the Union.

All parties looked upon this as a triumph of the slavery power, for the State Constitution of Texas not only admitted slavery, but prohibited that its abolition should ever be proposed in the Legislature. It was obliged, however, to guar-



antee that new States should be made out of its uninhabited territory, from which slavery might be excluded

### LESSON XXXVI.—HARRISON AND TYLER.

What do you remember of Harrison's election and administration? Was Tyler identical in politics with Harrison? What was done in the extra session of the Congress of 1841? What was the consequence of his veto of the Bank? What treaty made in his administration, was universally approved and rejoiced in? What was the great event of his administration? What had been the history of Texas between 1821 and 1844? Where is Texas? When did it become, as part of Mexico, independent of Spain? What American carried the first colony there, and when? Why did Mexico favor colonization by North Americans? What conditions did it impose? What inducements did it offer? What new favors were granted by Mexico, when it adopted the Federal Constitution? What year was this? To what year were these privileges afterward extended? When and why were Mexican garrisons afterwards put into Texas? What laws of 1829 and 1830 provoked the Texans? Why were these laws made? What was done against these laws, and with what success? Why did Texas make a protest against the Mexican government in 1834? Whom did they send as a commissioner, and what did they ask? What did he do? How came he to be made a prisoner? What advice did he give while in prison? Who were for war? Why? What was their first success? How was the war ended? What treaty was made? Why was there more fighting? Where did volunteers come from? When did Texas apply for admission? What parties had arisen in the United States in anticipation of this? Why did

the South favor annexation? Who has written out the argument of the Anti-Texan party? What was Mr. Clay's opinion? When was Texas admitted, and how was its admission regarded by the parties in the United States?

[The details of the war of independence in Texas, do not properly belong to the United States History. They may be found in the "Revolution of Texas," published in 1838, by Rev. C. Newell, whose sympathies are obviously all on the side of Texas, and who makes very light of the violation of the colonization laws of Mexico, under which the inhabitants first settled there; although he admits that they took place. In this book can be found also the Constitution of the Provisional Government as well as of the State. Unquestionably it was a great advance of order for Texas to adopt United States laws and courts, in place of the Spanish.]

#### JAMES K. POLK'S ADMINISTRATION.

A strongly contested election, in 1845, placed James K. Polk in the Presidential chair. The Clay party attributed this to their loss of the abolitionist vote, which was given to James G. Birney, a lawyer of Michigan, who had formerly been a slaveholder, but, having been convinced that slavery was wrong, had liberated his slaves, and spent his whole fortune in settling them free in the Northern States.

The Oregon difficulties presented themselves for adjustment in the first year of Mr. Polk's administration; the British Northwestern Fur Company claiming all the country north of the Oregon. This country was discovered by Sir Francis Drake in 1578, but not explored. In 1792, Robert Gray, a Boston captain, had entered the great river from the Pacific ocean, and named it Columbia. In 1805, Lewis and Clarke,

the western explorers, under the patronage of Jefferson, having crossed the Rocky Mountains, entered the same river at its sources, and sailed down to the Pacific ocean. They published a charming account of this expedition. The next year, a New York fur trader, by the name of Astor, undertook to build a trading town on the Columbia, to be connected by trading posts along the Columbia and Missouri rivers, to St. Louis. Washington Irving, in his interesting book, entitled "Astoria," has given a brilliant account of the formation of the Pacific Fur Company in 1810; of the voyage of the ship *Tonquin* round Cape Horn, and the expedition across the Rocky Mountains to meet it, at the mouth of the Columbia, where Astoria was built in 1811. He describes the difficulties met with, and the final loss of the whole colony by the British Northwestern Fur Company's taking possession of it in the War of 1812. It reverted to the United States at the treaty of Ghent, which closed the war. But a compromise was made, and the fur traders of both nations were to frequent the country for a limited term of years, without settlement. Nevertheless, since 1830, the Americans had missionary stations at Williamette, and other places. The Americans, in 1845, having explored and claimed the country as far as the 54° of north latitude, while the British opposed the claim, General Cass and others made warm war speeches in Congress. But in 1846 the matter was adjusted by negotiation with Lord Aberdeen, and the northern boundary line was settled to be 49°, Vancouver's Island being excepted.

The annexation of Texas became, as Mr. Clay had anticipated, a cause of WAR WITH MEXICO. Texas claimed to the Rio Grande as its boundary, while Mexico asserted its right as far as to the river Neuces, founding it on an old Spanish claim against the French of Louisiana. The United States government consequently sent General Taylor with an army

to occupy the northern bank of the Rio Grande, and prevent any hostile demonstrations of Mexico within what was now claimed as United States territory.

But there were other causes of the war. The Mexican government, as well as individual Mexicans, had, in the course of twenty years, committed many outrages upon American traders. In 1837, ninety-five of these cases had been stated to the Mexican minister, and reparation required. Nevertheless, the outrages continued, down to 1845, and contributed largely to feed a war spirit against the country. The Southern States were also jealous of Mexico, because slaveholding had been abolished by its government, in obedience to the Pope of Rome; and Mexico was likely to afford an easy place of refuge for fugitive slaves. The Mexican war consisted of a series of American victories, the military details of which can be read in the letter-press of George W. Kendall, written to illustrate a large volume of colored plates of the several battles, which Major Scott declares to be correct—except that the picture dresses up the American soldiers more finely than they were dressed in reality; for there was little uniform upon the volunteers, who made rather a wild appearance.

Hostilities were begun by the Mexicans, who fired upon Gen. Taylor at Palo Alto, as he was moving along the Rio Grande, with his “army of occupation,” between Point Isabel and Fort Brown. This army was fifteen hundred men, while the Mexican General Arista’s was six thousand. The battle of Palo Alto lasted five hours, in which General Taylor conquered, killing and wounding five hundred Mexicans. He gained another great victory over them the next day, at Resaca de la Palma. He then advanced into Mexico, and defeated General Ampudia at Monterey, spending, however, several days in reducing the city, which was fiercely defended. Two months after, he advanced into the narrow mountain pass



of Buena Vista, with five thousand men, and fought a whole day with Santa Anna, who met him with twenty thousand men. This was his fourth victory.

Meantime, in California, victories had been won by Commodores Sloat and Stockton and Captain Frémont

At the risk of seeming a little out of proportion, the particulars of this most extraordinary part of an extraordinary war will here be told.

In January, 1846, Captain J. C. Frémont, who the year before had been ordered by the War Department to explore a southern route to Oregon, arrived upon the frontiers of California, with a party of engineers. Knowing that the relations between the United States and Mexico were in a delicate position, and that the authorities of the latter were very jealous of Americans, he took the precaution to leave his party, and go alone to Monterey; where, with the United States consul Mr. Larkin, he called upon the commanding general, Castro, and made known to him his peaceful commission; receiving express permission to winter in the valley of San Joachim, where was plenty of game, and no inhabitants to be disturbed. After recruiting his party, he proceeded onward, and, on the 3d of March, encamped within fifty miles of Monterey, where, to his surprise, he received a peremptory order from Castro to leave the country at once. At first he took no notice of this order, as he had given no occasion for any hostile demonstration; but when he heard that General Castro was really in pursuit of him, he fortified his party with logs of wood, upon a high hill, and hoisted the United States flag; and there, in a quietly brave attitude, virtually defied the Californians to do their worst. From his camp he could see with his spyglass that an attack was in preparation, and he also received from Mr. Larkin a letter, telling him of Castro's orders to drive him from the country. The messenger who carried back Fré-

mont's answer to Larkin (which was that he and his party should defend themselves to the last man) added, from his own suggestion, that "two thousand men would not be able to drive Captain Frémont from his position." A similar impression seems to have taken possession of Castro himself, for he he did not venture to attack him; and, after three days' waiting, Captain Frémont left his little fort, and proceeded on his exploring expedition to Oregon. Castro followed afar off, but evidently did not dare to come up with him; and having picked up a few cast-away things left in the deserted log-fort, he returned to California, making a proclamation, full of falsehoods, declaring that he had driven away to Oregon this band of highway robbers!

In the following May, when Captain Frémont was encamped on the Greater Tlamath lake, he was surprised at the arrival of two mounted men, who told him that Lieut. Gillespie, with letters for him, was some miles behind, beset by hostile Indians. Captain Frémont immediately broke up his camp and went back to his assistance, and met him after a day or two. Lieut. Gillespie delivered him a letter of simple introduction from Mr. Buchanan, Secretary of State, and family letters from Col. Benton. Under all the circumstances, he could not but understand that Lieut. Gillespie was accredited by Mr. Buchanan as an agent of the government, and this the gentleman himself affirmed, informing Captain Frémont that the government wished him to return to California, and acquaint himself with the disposition of the inhabitants, and the designs of the British upon the country; and, if they were of a certain kind, to counteract them. On his return to California, which was immediate, he found the valley of the Sacramento in the greatest excitement, for all the American settlers had been ordered out of the country, and were threatened with massacre, and the destruction of their crops. The ar-

rival of Captain Frémont inspired them with a hope of defending themselves; they expected every moment to be attacked by the Indians, who had been excited against them; and they besought him to take the direction of the defence. The danger of the American settlers was imminent, and their enemy was also his own. But he did not know that the Mexican war was begun. It was impossible for him to communicate with the authorities at home; yet, unauthorized, he could not commit the United States government, by commencing hostilities in its name. But his heart bled for his distressed countrymen, and he made up his mind that, at all risks to himself, he must embrace their cause. He communicated his feelings to his party, who all joyfully acceded to his views; Lieut. Gillespie also. He then advised the Americans to raise the Bear flag at Sonoma (for they had no right to that of the United States), and under it the great battle of Sacramento was fought, and all the country north of the Bay of San Francisco was conquered. Independence was formally declared, July 5th, 1846, and Captain Frémont, by the general voice, was put at the head of affairs. In the letter which he wrote to his father-in-law, Senator Benton, and which is in print, he expresses his confidence that the United States government would sanction his course; but, if it should not, he was prepared to resign his commission.

With one hundred and sixty riflemen, he now started from Sonoma, in search of Castro, who was entrenched south of the bay, at Santa Clara. On the 10th of July, being on his way, he learned that Commodore Sloat had taken possession of Monterey, on the 7th; from which he thought war had begun between Mexico and the United States. He therefore immediately pulled down the Bear flag, and raised the stripes and stars.

Commodore Sloat was acting under orders received the year

before from the Navy Department, the Secretary (Bancroft) having directed that as soon as he should know that war was declared against Mexico, he should take possession of California. Hearing of the exploits of Captain Frémont in the north, he supposed that he must be acting under orders from the government. This appears from his own letters to Capt. Montgomery, in which he expressed a hope that Frémont would approve of what they were about to do, and join them. Capt. Montgomery, at Sloat's order, took possession of Yerba Buena (now San Francisco), at once hoisting the United States flag, without opposition, in the public square. Commodore Sloat, at the same time, wrote to Capt. Frémont, telling him what he had done, and requesting his coöperation; in consequence of which, Capt. Frémont forthwith repaired to Monterey, and put himself and his riflemen under Sloat's command; but told him, at the same time, that he had had no orders from Washington, but had acted on his own responsibility.

Commodore Sloat was ill (he had already asked leave of absence on that account), and he was worried by this communication. He therefore very gladly resigned his command to Commodore Stockton, who arrived at this moment (July 23d) to relieve him.

Commodore Stockton, finding the state of the affair, had no hesitation about continuing the conquest of California; and to Commodore Sloat's proclamation, which had promised the conquered, under the protection of the United States, a better government than Mexico had ever given them, he added another, threatening war upon any who should molest American citizens. Capt. Frémont and Lient. Gillespie were both, by their own appointments under government, independent of Com. Stockton, and Frémont, actually was, by the popular voice, at the head of affairs. But both of them, without hesitation, with their one hundred and sixty riflemen, put them-



selves under Stockton, and from this moment obeyed him implicitly; having no other interest than that of the United States. The victory on the plains of Salinas soon followed.

On the 25th of July, Capt. Frémont sailed from Monterey in the *Cyane*, in order to intercept the retreating general, Castro; Castro and Governor Pico did not, however, dare to encounter him, but fled across the desert to Sonora, more than two hundred miles! Capt. Frémont and Commodore Stockton then joined their forces, and marched to Los Angeles, the capital of the Californias, and took possession of it, without opposition. On the 22d of August, California was in the undisputed possession of the United States.

Two days after (the 24th), Fremont was appointed military commandant of the territory by Commodore Stockton, who charged him to enlist a sufficient force to garrison the country. On the 28th, he wrote to the government, as well as to Major Fremont, that he intended to appoint him governor. This dispatch, with others, President Polk, in his annual message of 1846, laid before Congress, with these words: "Our squadron in the Pacific, with the coöperation of a gallant officer of the army,\* and a small force hastily collected in that distant country, have acquired bloodless possession of the Californias."

It is important to remark, that, two days after Commodore Sloat took possession of Monterey, the British admiral, Seymour, had arrived; and, had he not found the United States flag flying at Monterey, he would have planted the British. Maj. Frémont found, in the archives of the government at Los Angeles, business papers, showing that the Missions had been hurriedly sold to British purchasers at the very time that he was fortifying himself at first; and that an Irish

\* Meaning Col. Fremont.

priest (McNamara) was in treaty for the whole beautiful valley of Joachim, which was to be settled by an Irish colony, under British protection. These papers are all in print. As Com. Sloat had been determined to take Monterey, by hearing of Capt. Frémont's exploits, and Com. Stockton, when he arrived, was still ignorant of the beginning of the Mexican war, but acted on the success which had already been obtained, it is plain that Capt. Frémont was in every sense the person to whom the United States owes the possession of California.

But all was not done yet, An insurrection broke out in the south of California, soon after Maj. Frémont left Los Angeles, the enemy all at once realizing that, in point of numbers, "a little one had chased a multitude!" Lieut. Gillespie, with his very small garrison, was then obliged to retire to Monterey; and Major Frémont, instead of being able to go to San Francisco on the 24th of October, as Commodore Stockton ordered him to do, to be installed governor, went into the valley of the Sacramento to enlist an army to suppress the insurrection. At this moment Gen. Kearney arrived. This officer, on the breaking out of the Mexican war, had been ordered by the government to leave Fort Leavenworth, where he was stationed, and go and conquer New Mexico; then to proceed to California, conquer it, organize a government for it, and himself take the office of governor. He had bravely executed the first part of these instructions, and was proceeding to California, when he met the celebrated trapper, Kit Carson, with the despatches from Commodore Stockton to the government, announcing the conquest of California. He sent on his despatches by another person, and retained Carson as a guide, on account of his experience in the Indian country. It was not until after the insurrection had broken out, that he arrived in California, when he encountered the enemy, flushed with their first success of driving Lieut. Gillespie from Los Angeles to Monterey.

He had a battle with them at San Pasqual, in which eighteen of his men fell, and as many more were wounded. He then wrote to Commodore Stockton, that he was entrenched on a rocky eminence near San Pasqual, surrounded by the enemy. Stockton sent Lieut. Gray, with two hundred and fifty men, to his relief; and, on their approach, the besiegers abandoned the field, and left the relief party to return, unmolested, with Gen. Kearney and his dragoons. Gen. Kearney then communicated to Commodore Stockton his instructions from the government; but Commodore Stockton did not feel himself compelled to give up the chief command, especially as the spirit of the instructions seemed to be, that the conqueror of California should be its governor. Gen. Kearney did not insist, but placed himself under Stockton's command, and his dragoons helped to make up his force of six hundred men, who joined Frémont and entered Los Angeles, after the victory of San Gabriel, and a still more remarkable one, on the plains of Meza, where the Americans, drawn up in a small square, phalanx-like, conquered the Spanish Californians, whose onset, however, with the finest cavalry in the world was very brilliant.

With a small body of men, Major Frémont afterward embarked, according to Commodore Stockton's orders, for Santa Barbara; but on his way, hearing that in all South California only San Diego was left in the hands of the Americans, and that no horses could be procured there, he returned to Monterey, to mount his men and march overland. He arrived October 27th, and was agreeably surprised to learn that the President had appointed him Lieutenant-Colonel in the United States Army. It was unsolicited by him, or by any of his friends; and it sanctioned all that he had done from the first. (He had done it with so little assurance of being approved by government—though he hoped that his country would bear

him out—that he had sent to Col. Benton, with the account of what he had done, a resignation of his commission, to be given in, if the government had disapproved.)

In December, Col. Frémont, at the head of four hundred mounted men, commenced his march southward, and on his way surprised and took possession of San Louis Obispo, where he found Don Jesus Pico, who had been made prisoner on the plains of Salinas, but had broken his parole, and was at the head of the insurrection! He was tried by a court martial, and condemned to death; but was pardoned by Col. Fremont, —a wise act, by which he was attached to the latter for ever after, in faithful service; and the hearts of his friends, among whom was the governor, Pico, were won. Col. Frémont “being satisfied,” as he wrote to Senator Benton, in another private letter, “that it was a great national measure to unite California to the Union, *as a sister State*, by a voluntary expression of the popular will,” proceeded with great wisdom and forbearance, and marched all the way to Los Angeles, four hundred miles, without spilling a drop of blood, but “conquering a peace,” by clemency and justice. At Cuenga he found the enemy in large force, and sent word to them to lay down their arms. They demanded a conference. In company with his new friend, Don Jesus Pico, he went to their camp alone, and found them ready to capitulate. Terms were agreed upon, that were subsequently sanctioned by Commodore Stockton; and later, by the United States. Ample testimony proves the popularity of Col. Frémont among the native, as well as American Californians, from this moment.\*

\* That they were all glad to be rid of the Mexican Government, can be easily understood by those who know the history of this country, from the time when Cortez first discovered it, in 1634. It had been first colonized by the Jesuits, who had succeeded, as usual, in civilizing the Indians, and



But the dispute concerning the chief command, between General Kearney and Commodore Stockton, produced difficulties. The day after Colonel Frémont was installed Governor, General Kearney and Commodore Stockton gave to him exactly contradictory orders respecting the organization of the California corps. It was an attempt on the part of General Kearney, to try the question of relative power with Commodore Stockton, and does not seem to have originated in any ill-will to Colonel Frémont; General Kearney expressing to Colonel Russell, at the same date, that he should make Colonel Fremont governor, if he had the chief command.

Col. Frémont replied to his order in writing, that if he and Commodore Stockton would agree between themselves which was the commander-in-chief, he would obey the superior officer; but until that matter was settled, which he had no power to decide, he felt himself obliged to continue to obey the commander under whom the whole war had been conducted.

Failing to obtain from Col. Frémont aid in his plan of

who were succeeded, in 1765, by the Franciscan monks. But these missionary governors were despotic; and when Mexico became independent of Spain, and subsequently republican, Echuantria had superseded the government of the monks altogether. But he himself governed with so much rapacity, that, in 1837, it had become independent of Mexico, under Alvarado, but had returned again under the Mexican Government, in 1840. This history can be found in a book which nobody who has a literary reputation to defend would wish to recommend to the perusal of the young (J. T. Farnham's *Adventures in California*). But in the 4th and 5th chapters of it is a vivid picture of the outrages to which American and British people were subjected, under the abominable rule of the Spanish Californians; involving an account of the aid given by some American settlers to Alvarado when he had been made independent of Mexico; together with the story of his ungrateful return. The strange, rhodomontade style of the book is also not unexpressive of much of the spirit of Western adventure, which is settling the shores of the Pacific.

putting Com. Stockton in the wrong, Kearney transferred his resentment to Col. Frémont. But this did not clearly appear until after Col. Fremont had returned, in company with him, to Fort Leavenworth, when he ordered him to be arrested, and charged him with mutiny, disobedience to orders, and irregular conduct!

A court-martial was summoned, and before it, in his testimony, he attempted to fasten on Col. Frémont a dishonorable charge of corrupt motive.

The defence of Col. Frémont is before the country. The documents, connected with the trial, are the only history of the war yet in print, and the above narrative is a meagre abstract of those papers.

The court-martial convicted Col. Frémont of every charge made, and sentenced him to be dismissed the service; but in consideration of his patriotic conduct and services, recommended him to the lenient consideration of the executive.

Mr. Polk signed the sentence, with the expression of an opinion, that, though Col. Frémont might be, according to strict military etiquette, technically guilty, he had deserved so well of his country, as to be entitled to reward, rather than punishment; and tendered to him his sword, and the high office which had already been conferred upon him.

But Col. Frémont declined it, and returned to California, where he remained as a private citizen, until elected to the United States Senate, by an overwhelming vote of the new State of California.

In the interval, Gen. Taylor had appointed him commissioner to run the boundary line between Mexico and California, which he only held long enough to express his grateful appreciation of the feeling from which the appointment had been made. Gen. Taylor had not agreed with the sentence of the court-martial.

Unquestionably, both Col. Frémont and Commodore Stockton were irregular in doing what they did, without knowing that war had commenced. But in spirit they were acting in obedience to the country, a part of which they were. It is only in the United States that such a thing could be done. It offended the army, but not the people; and Polk, in his courtesy to the condemned officer, expressed the verdict of the heart of the country, upon the whole-hearted patriot.

Col. Frémont made no wild, marauding attempt for his own purposes; but at the risk of everything to himself, took up the cause of his suffering countrymen, at a moment when the only alternative was to leave them to perish under causeless violence. It is absurd to name it in the same day with the fillibustering attempts which have been so rife since.

We now return from this long digression to the victories by which Gen. Scott completed the conquest of Mexico, begun by Gen. Taylor. Feb. 22d, 1847, he invested the castle of San Juan de Ulloa, and bombarded Vera Cruz, to hurry the surrender. He then started for the City of Mexico, and on his way gained the great victory of Cerro Gordo, in April. His advance was disputed with great spirit, in August, at Contreras, and in September, at Churubusco, Molino del Rey, and Chapultepec—places in the immediate vicinity of the City of Mexico—at all of which Scott won great victories. The Mexicans fought bravely in attack, and were formidable with their cavalry; but as soon as the battle came to the point of the bayonet, the physical force of the Americans was overpowering. On the 14th of September, Gen. Scott entered the City of Mexico, and planted the stars and stripes upon the National Palace. Santa Anna had retreated, discouraged for the moment, and left the Mexican Congress to treat for the peace which Gen. Scott had “conquered.” But before he left, he seems to have organized a conspiracy to break out upon the

Americans after the capitulation. Within the city, as without, however, the Americans fought like tigers, and gained the victory.

It was on the 2nd of February, 1848, that the treaty of peace was finally signed at Guadaloupé Hidalgo. Upper California, New Mexico, and Utah were added to the United States. But they professed to be unwilling to destroy the Mexican Republic, and agreed to give back the City of Mexico, and pay 15,000,000 of dollars for the territories ceded, and to undertake to pay to American citizens all their claims of indemnity, for the injuries inflicted on them by the Mexicans, according to the statement formerly made to Mr. Forsyth.

In the year 1848, was also discovered the California gold, by James W. Marshall, who was working upon Sutter's mill. This discovery gave a vast impulse to the immigration into California, which had already commenced; and in the course of a single year the inhabitants of that territory began to make arrangements for a State government.

### LESSON XXXVII.—POLK

What were the circumstances of Polk's election? What was the Oregon difficulty? What had been the history of Oregon? How was it settled? What were the causes of the war with Mexico? How did it begin? What were General Taylor's victories? Who had conquered California meanwhile? Tell the whole story of Capt. Frémont's action between January, 1846, and the 10th of July. Tell all that Commodore Sloat did, and why? What did Commodore Stockton and Fremont do, that completed the conquest? How did Polk announce it to Congress? What proofs were there of a British occupation prevented? What interrupted Fré-



mont's installation as Governor, Oct. 25th? How came Gen. Kearney to arrive just now? What occurred between him and Stockton? What victories were then won? How did Col. Frémont complete the suppression of the insurrection? What difficulties between Kearney and Stockton involved Frémont? What can you tell of his arrest, trial, sentence, and Polk's final award? How did Scott complete the conquest of Mexico? What was the treaty of Guadaloupé Hidalgo? Who discovered the California gold, and when, and where? (Teacher must analyse the above questions.)

#### TAYLOR'S ADMINISTRATION.

General Taylor came into the Presidential chair in 1849, less pledged to a party than any previous President since Washington, though he was the candidate of the Whigs. His Democratic opponent was General Cass; another opponent was Martin Van Buren, candidate of a new party, formed of the free-soil Whigs and free-soil Democrats, together with some of those who had voted in 1845 for Mr. Birney, the Abolitionist. General Taylor was a slaveholder, and yet was thought to be opposed to slavery extension. It was his military glory, however, and especially his success in promoting the conquest of Mexico, which gave him great popularity and power at the South, that ensured his election. He had absolutely declined giving any party pledges, or doing anything personally, to bring his election about. This helped his cause. *Unquestionable* disinterestedness is the surest passport with the electing people. It is to the honor of the inhabitants of the United States, that party leaders find the reputation of such a quality makes the most available candidate for the Presidential office.

But President Taylor died in 1850; and here we close our

narrative—that year being an epoch in our history, by reason of the renewed agitation of the Slavery Question, which was produced by the circumstance of California's applying for admission to the Union, without Slavery.

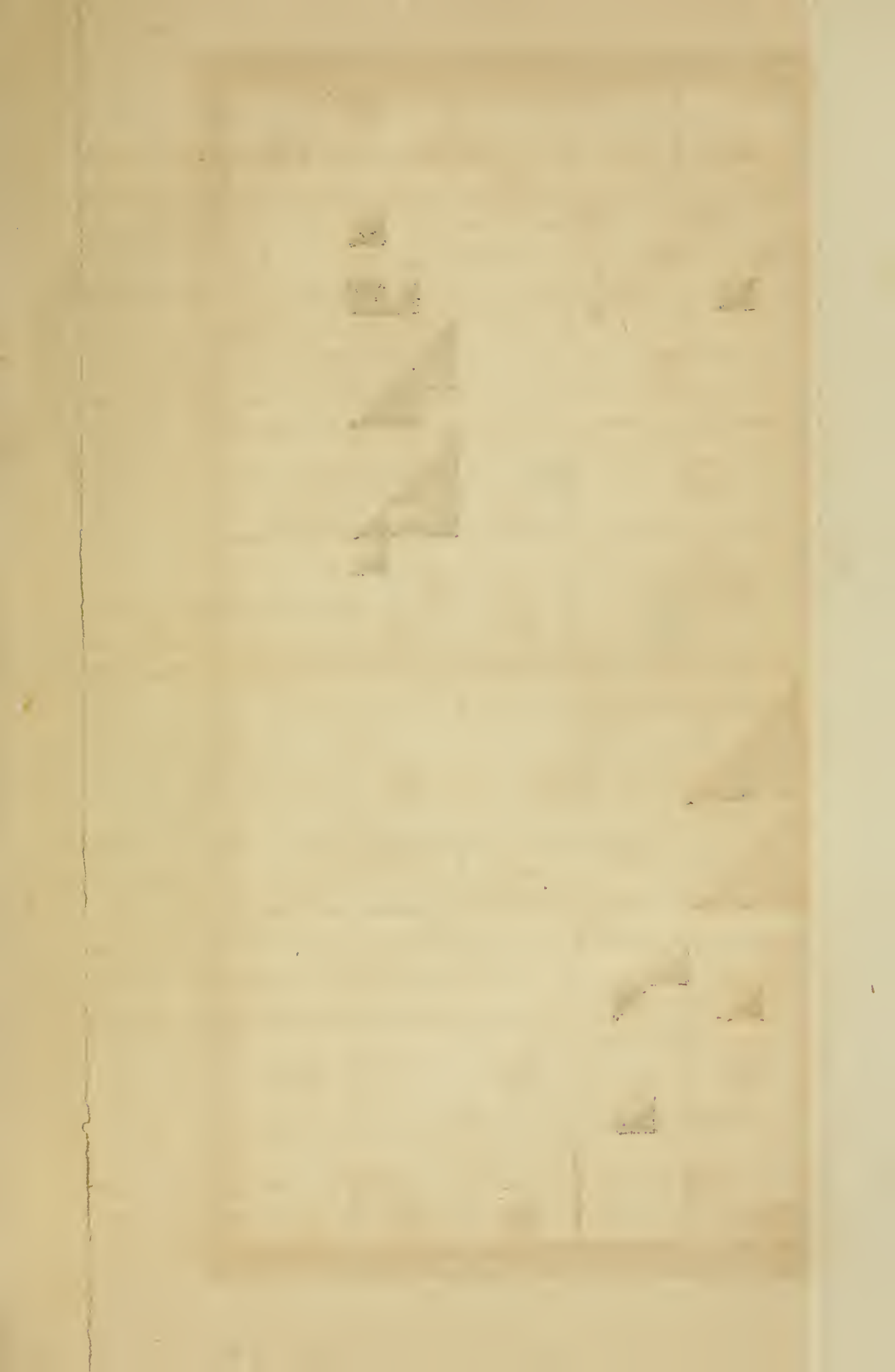
A book intended for the public schools of all the United States, is not the place for discussions of a subject so vital to the interests of the Union as the Slavery question. Nothing, therefore, can be said here about the compromises of 1850, except to state them. The most striking thing done, was the passage of a Fugitive Slave Law, reviving the obsolete one of 1789, and making it very much more stringent. The territories of Utah and New Mexico were constituted, without forbidding slavery within their borders. The pro-slavery party gained so much. On the other hand, the domestic slave trade was prohibited in the District of Columbia, and California was admitted free. Both parties professed to believe that this would finally set at rest the Slavery question.

### LESSON XXXVIII.—TAYLOR.

When was General Taylor inaugurated President? What party set him up? Who was the Democratic opponent? What other opponent had he? How was Van Buren's party composed? How was General Taylor upon Slavery? What ensured his election? Did he electioneer for himself? When did he die? Why is this year an epoch? What were the compromises of 1850?

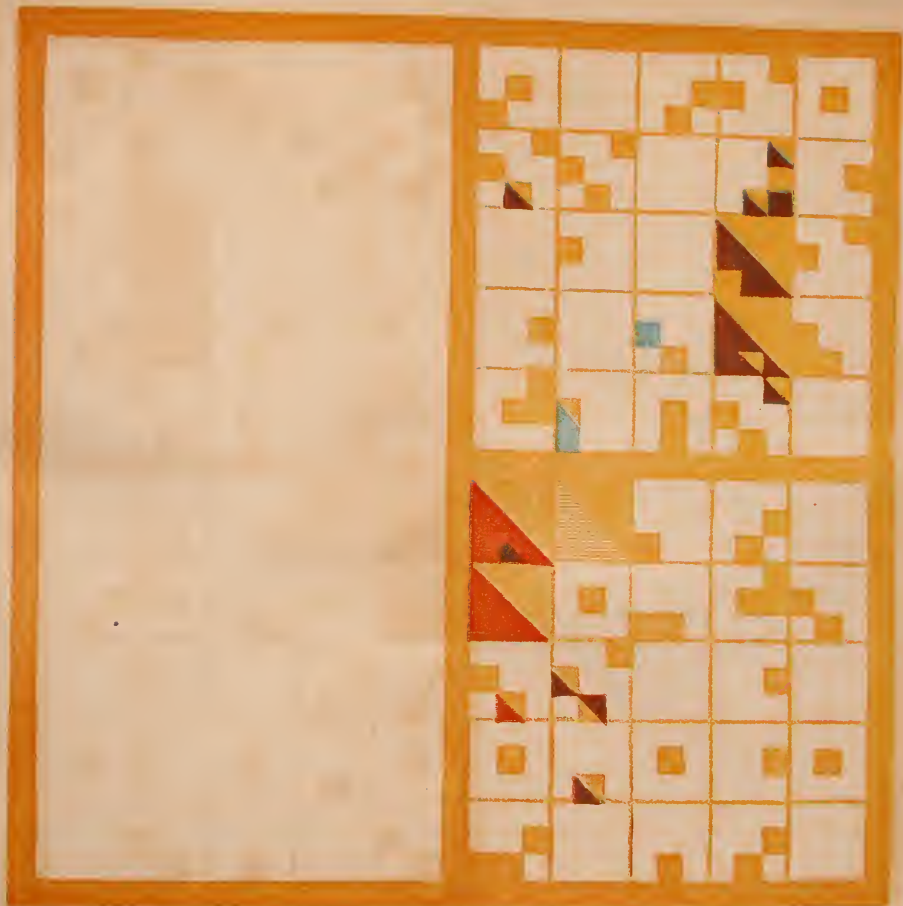
### EXERCISE ON THE TABLE OF THE 18TH CENTURY.

The teacher should take the table, and, naming each event separately, ask what year it occurred, and how it is represented. Then reverse the exercise, and ask of each year











what events happened in it. Then ask what Presidents were inaugurated, and the years. What States were admitted, and the years, &c., &c. A review of the chapters afterward, without reference to the questions, might be made; and a pupil selected by lot to tell the whole story, while the rest of the class watch, to criticise and correct.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF THE 18TH CENTURY.

- 1801. Thomas Jefferson, third President U. S. A. (5.)
- 1802. Ohio, 17th State, admitted to Union. (2)
- 1803. Jefferson buys Louisiana. Difficulties with Tripoli.
- 1804. Decatur's and Eaton's exploits in the Barbary States.  
(8.) Lear's treaty with Barbary Powers. (6.) Hamilton's death. (9.)
- 1807. Foreign slave trade abolished. (6.) Burr's trial. (8.)
- 1809. James Madison, fourth President of U. S. A. (5.)
- 1811. Battle of Tippecanoe. Tecumseh's confederation.
- 1812. War with England. (1.) Louisiana admitted. (2.) British losses from the naval victories of Commodores Hull, Jones, Decatur, Bainbridge, and the American privateers; and the land victories of Colonels Wool, Brown, and Miller. (3.) Gen. Hull's surrender of Detroit. (6.)
- 1813. Victories of Winchester, Croghan, Perry, Harrison, Scott, and Jackson by land; and of Lawrence, Porter, Allen, and Burroughs by sea. (1.) Tecumseh killed. (9.)
- 1814. Victories at Fort Erie, CHIPPEWAY, LUNDY'S LANE, Baltimore, PLATTSBURG, and in Florida. English capitulate at Ghent, notwithstanding their successes on the coast, burning of Washington, &c. (6.)

1815. Jackson's final victory at New Orleans. (1.) Decatur's victories at Algiers, (8.) and treaty. (3.)
1816. Indiana, 19th State, admitted. (2.) United States Bank rechartered. (6.)
1817. James Monroe, fifth President; Mississippi admitted; first Seminole War begins.
1818. Illinois, 21st State, admitted to Union.
1819. Alabama, 22d State, admitted to Union.
1820. Maine, 23d State, admitted to Union.
1821. Missouri, 24th State, admitted to Union. Compromise with Slavery, violating ordinance of 1787.
1824. Lafayette's visit. (8, *blue*.) Great Protective Tariff.
1825. John Quincy Adams, sixth President. Creek difficulty.
1826. Adams and Jefferson die, July 4th. (9.)
1827. Anti-Masonry movement. (6.) Morgan's abduction. (9.)
1829. Andrew Jackson, seventh President of U. S. A.
1830. Treaty of United States with Turkey.
1832. Blackhawk's War. Nullification in South Carolina. Jackson lays veto on the United States Bank.
1833. Jackson removes deposits from U. S. Bank.
1835. Jackson's proclamation against the French. Death of Lafayette.
1836. Florida War begins with massacre of Dade's command. Michigan and Arkansas admitted to Union.
1837. Martin Van Buren, eighth President.
1838. Mormon War. Van Buren's proclamation about the Canada difficulties.
1839. Difficulties on the frontiers of Maine and New Brunswick compromised for a time, by Scott, without a war.
1841. William H. Harrison, ninth President. He dies. John Tyler succeeds.



1842. Dorr's insurrection in Rhode Island. (1.) Ashburton treaty.
1844. Texas applies for admission; not received till next year.
1845. James K. Polk, eleventh President. Iowa and Florida admitted. Second Mormon War.
1846. Oregon treaty. (6.) Mexican War, and Taylor's victories: at Palo Alto, May 8th; at Resaca de la Palma, May 9th; Monterey, Sept. 23. Meanwhile, Frémont and Stockton conquer California; and Tampico is occupied Nov. 14th.
1847. Taylor's victory at Buena Vista, Feb. 22nd. Scott's victories: at Vera Cruz, March 7th; Cerro Gordo, April 18th; Contreras, August 20th; Molino del Rey, Sept. 8th; Chapultepec, Sept. 12th; and Mexico city capitulates, Sept. 14th.
1848. Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, Feb. 22nd. James Marshall discovers the gold in California, at Sutter's mill.
1849. Zachary Taylor, twelfth President of U. S. A.
1850. California, 31st State, admitted free. Domestic slave-trade abolished in District of Columbia. Stringent Fugitive Slave Law promulgated.

## LESSON OF REVIEW.

What was the order of settlement of the thirteen colonies, and the years of their settlement? Then, what are the years of the admission of States of the Union since the Revolutionary war? What is the order of Presidents, and the years of their inauguration? Repeat the years of the Revolutionary war, and the events that characterize them. Repeat the years of the War of 1812, and the events that characterize them.

In what years broke out the five French wars, including "Queen Anne's" and "King William's?" Tell the dates of Indian wars before the Revolution; of Indian wars since the Revolution, &c., &c.

Another very useful lesson would be to give some dates of contemporary European history. This could be easily managed thus: Let the pupils copy the plates on a large scale, making the subdivisions into ninths with a lead pencil only, whose marks can be easily erased; and then let the teacher indicate great events, such as the "League of Cambray," 1508; year of "German Protest," 1530; "Council of Trent," 1545; "Massacre of St. Bartholomew," 1572; years of the accession of kings; "Thirty Years' War," 1618; Peace of Westphalia, 1648, &c. Taking one century for a lesson, and indicating these dates, the events might be distributed to the individuals, or to divisions of the class, requiring them to seek out information upon them, in encyclopedias and books of history, and bring interesting narratives, either on paper, or to be recited *viva voce*. Teachers might also lecture on contemporary events, and indicate dates, to be written in the year squares, where nothing is painted. To aid them in preparing the lectures, recourse might be had, for the 16th century, to a small volume, compiled by the author of this book, from the history of Germany, Bohemia, Switzerland, Spain, Italy, Netherlands, and Hungary, called "Crimes of the House of Austria;" in which it is shown how all the above countries, except Switzerland and Holland, lost their constitutional liberties in that century. All Prescott's Histories illustrate this century also; and Schiller's "Revolt of the Netherlands;" and Motley's "Dutch Republic," just published; and Zschokke's "History of Switzerland." For the 17th century, we have Schiller's "Thirty Years' War," and Macaulay's History, &c.

But it would be much better for the class to study Bem's Charts of Universal History, at once; reproducing them according to the plan indicated in the Manual. In fact, while that would lay a broad foundation for the richest historical education, it is more suited to the youthful mind than the study of United States History—Ancient History being a narrative largely addressing the imagination, to which the Hebrew nation appears like a child led along by its Heavenly Guardian, from infancy to manhood, and disciplined; while Greece and Rome are boys of different temperaments, with whose love of enjoyment and of dominion, boys of all ages sympathize. The kingdoms that rose out of the ruins of Rome have also much of the picturesque, with their ages of chivalry, &c.; although the introduction of the principle of Christian life mingles a deeper element, and causes greater lights and shades, the nearer we arrive to the present day; when, on the two sides of the Atlantic, the opposite experiments are being tried; on one side, the struggle to establish the *legitimate* Despotism of the few—on the other, to develop Constitutional Liberty for all.

N. B.—We intended to append to this work "An Appeal for Bem's Method, applied to Universal History," published in the third number of The New York Journal of Education and College Review, and copied into some other periodicals; but as there is no more room, we can only refer to it.

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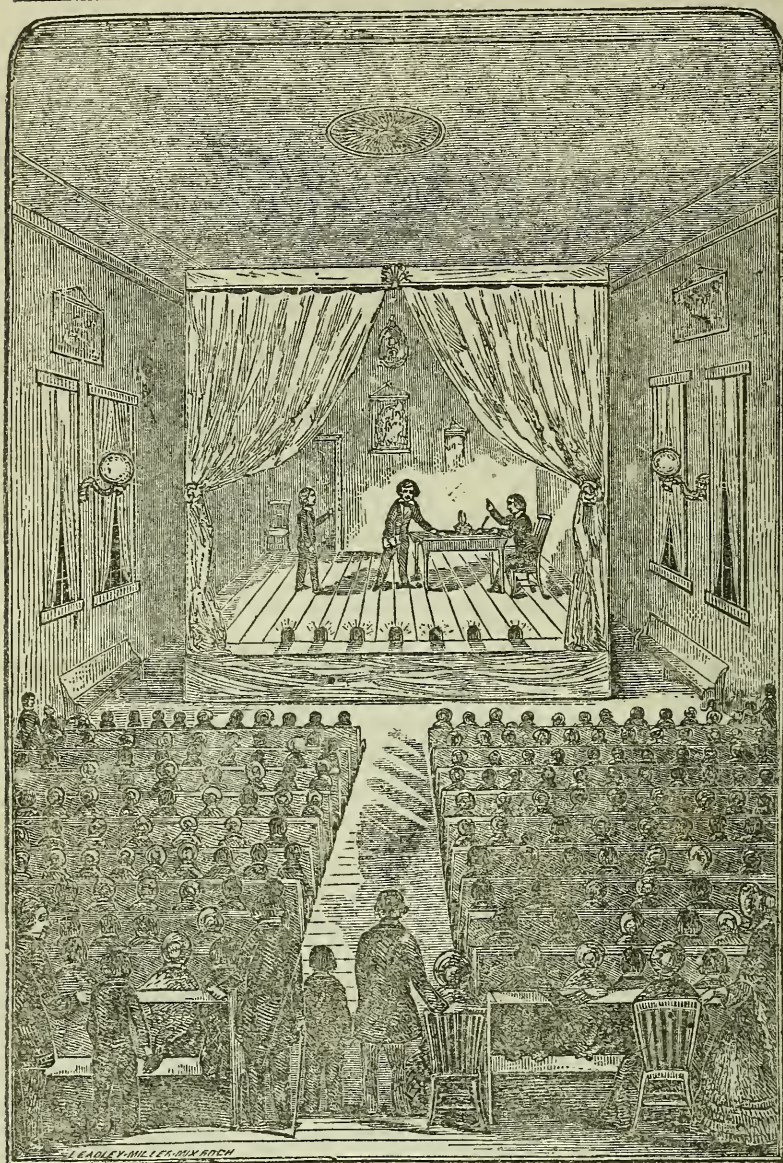
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